

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN POSITIONS, CAREER INFLUENCES, AND
CAREER PATHS OF SENIOR STUDENT AFFAIRS ADMINISTRATORS

By

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For unto whomsoever much is given, of her shall be much required.

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Although student affairs professionals are free to participate in the administrative arena based upon indices of preparedness, qualifications, and merit, perceptions pervade the media, public attitude, and common thought that remain critical of the degree of egalitarian gender participation at administrative levels. This study was an investigation of gender differences in positions, factors which encourage and/or inhibit upward mobility for senior student affairs administrators, and differences in career paths followed.

Selected for inclusion in this sample were 367 members of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators or National Association of Women in Education who hold positions as associate dean or above in student affairs. A survey instrument, "Career Paths in Higher Education Administration," was mailed to this sample for response.

Results indicated that men and women administrators evidenced no difference in level of positions held nor in career patterns followed to achieve

their present status. However, men and women administrators reported differences in factors which encouraged and inhibited mobility. Gender differences were found in age range, year in which the highest degree was received, ages of children, 5-year career goals, percentage of female enrollment at institutions of employment, and size and type of these institutions. Men and women ascribed differential levels of importance to community/political involvement, leisure time, and parenting at the beginning of their careers. Gender differences were also evidenced in administrators' experiences with sex discrimination and familial responsibilities.

The concept that the glass ceiling provides an invisible barrier to women's advancement into senior positions has become a pervasive one. This catchy phrase is frequently uttered among higher education administrators. Unlike recent findings in higher education, conclusions from this study are that, despite differences in some of the factors that encourage or inhibit advancement into senior-level administration positions in student affairs, the level of positions held by men and women in the sample did not differ significantly. No gender differences were found in positions held by senior student affairs administrators nor in their career paths followed. Student affairs practitioners must, then, take special care not to generalize theories and concepts adapted from other occupational specialty markets in higher education.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

In the administrative structure of American universities, very few women hold upper-level positions (Touchton & Shavlik, 1985). When identifying the seven power positions in the university, researchers (Gross & Grambsch, 1968) delineated president, regents, trustees, vice presidents, deans of professional schools, deans of graduate schools, and faculty. Few women, of any color, hold any of these top positions (Smith, 1985). Some of the factors related to the lack of women's participation in the administrative positions include mentorism and sponsorship (Cook, 1979; Crawford, 1977), networking (Zaccharias, 1978), possessing educational credentials appropriate for management (Taylor & Shavlik, 1977), and experience in lower-level positions (Benton, 1980).

In an effort to enhance upward mobility, Lincoln (1986) advocated the use of the concept "career ladder." This concept considers careers, jobs, and professions as a series of apprenticeships whereby the professional maps slow, regular, even-paced steps necessary to career mobility. Career moves, then, would provide benchmarks for making judgments about progress relative to that of other aspirants who may already occupy the position desired; this population of aspirants is usually comprised of men who hold senior positions.

Much of the research which focuses on career patterns of higher education administrators has been based upon single-sex samples. Any

study of career paths of women should include a study of similar patterns in men, inasmuch as men ascend to the upper ranks in their professions more often than women. According to a recent analysis of salaries of Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAO), men attained chief and dean positions more often than women (Robinson, Walker, & Walker, 1990).

In a study of men and women who held similar administrative positions in a university, Barrax (1985) delineated several differences and similarities in their career patterns. Using three institutional catalogues, the researcher selected female and male administrators who held, at minimum, a master's degree. Female administrators were matched with male administrators at the same institution, according to position level. Barrax (1985) used an in-depth interview to report on education, experience, and factors which contributed to the selection of administrators within each institution. In the results, men and women recognized the importance of such factors as *"efficiency"* and *"competence in an administrative position"* to mobility and promotion. Only those administrators who had been appointed to their positions from within the university mentioned *"prior experience in lower-level administration"* as a factor in their selection.

Barrax (1985) found a positive relationship between certain characteristics mentioned in the literature and level of management. These characteristics included risk-taking (only when a search committee was involved), assertiveness (an element in intra-institutional promotion), formal networking, and participation on committees. Women found it beneficial to attract attention to their abilities by volunteering for and accepting assignments at all university levels. Risk-takers who achieve

change smoothly are perceived as successful administrators and, therefore, viable candidates for upper-level positions.

When reporting major factors that influenced their advancement to senior administrative positions, men cited possession of the right credentials, including terminal degree and publications; a regional or national reputation from involvement in organizations; responses given to questions during interviews revealing communication skills or institutional match; strong recommendations from the right persons; and social and personal characteristics of the interviewee. Informal networking, considered a key element in any career path to administration, was not perceived by a significant number of men or women as a crucial element for selection for a position (Barrax, 1985).

Because men and women face different problems in higher education administration, they often perceive factors which influence mobility at a differential rate. Thus, variables which are perceived as barriers for women's advancement may not serve as barriers for men. As a part of a study by Oakland University's chapter of the American Council on Education's National Identification Program, a research committee was established to explore barriers which affect the advancement of women in higher education (Chamberlain, 1988). Among other things, the committee was interested in how men and women enter administration and how their educational and occupational experiences affect their administrative careers. The researchers sought to understand the avenues for mobility in administration in order to help interested women have access to information useful for the formulation of career goals.

Investigators conducted a national survey of administrators at the dean and above level in institutions of higher education. Findings from the survey concluded that women who are nonacademic administrators were more likely to seek out their careers than their academic counterparts; no pattern was found for men. Men were more likely to have been recruited for their first administrative position.

Less than half of the administrators in a recent study (Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, & Marin, 1988) viewed the level of professional involvement, sponsorship, and ethnicity as general barriers to advancement; desire for a particular geographical location was considered as a barrier. Women were more likely to view sex discrimination and family responsibilities as barriers, while men viewed lack of an advanced degree as a significant barrier. Men also perceived their first administrative position held as significant to career patterns (Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, & Marin, 1988).

Clarke's (1988) research was designed to determine differences in the ways that men and women advanced in their career. Were women lacking in skills necessary for advancement, were they less ambitious, or was there an "invisible barrier or glass ceiling" to promotion (Clarke, p. 46)? This study of upward mobility at Duke University found that while women held 59% of mid- and upper-level administrative positions, fewer than 8% of all senior-level administrative positions were held by women (Clarke, 1988). Furthermore, 65% of the jobs which include the word "assistant" were held by women (with 43% of these at lower administrative levels). Nineteen of 20 males held titles which included the word "associate," while only 4 of 24

females were in this category. Clarke (1988) also found that titles confer higher rank and higher salary more frequently with men than with women.

A questionnaire was used to determine differences in the ways men and women go about advancing their careers. Results indicated that some assumptions which were true 20 years ago are no longer valid. For example, the notion that men are more aggressive in seeking career advancement and women are not as motivated or directed in their career paths was not supported. Clarke (1988) concluded that broad-based social change will be required if women are to advance at the rate of men. However, attitudes of men in dual-career families are changing: Men administrators at Duke encourage full equality of opportunity, for example, by sharing parenting responsibilities. Men responded that their "wives' careers were as important" as their own (Clarke, p. 49).

Sagaria (1988) examined mobility of persons into administrative positions and suggested a study of the internal specialty market of a system. This perspective emphasizes that collective human behavior constitutes organizational behavior. Organizational behavior then affects individual career patterns. This is also evidenced in the distinct administrative hiring and promotion practices typical of an organization. In this same study it was found that an understanding of the attitudes of key decision makers, position holders, and of individuals who make selection decisions yields an understanding of structural consequences within the organization. Men are selected as administrators more often than women because the decisions to hire for or promote within an administrative position are representative of individuals who enact organizational goals; more often than not, men are in these positions (Sagaria, 1988). The researcher concluded that this,

coupled with evidence that more women than men seek administrative positions, suggests that organizational hiring and promotion practices influence the structuring of careers by gender more so than personal aspirations.

Individual patterns of career advancement begin with entry into the work force and end with retirement. They are viewed as a process within higher education organizations which involves a series of position changes which are a direct result of the organizational structure. Caplow (1954) determined that these changes are used as measures of career progress. Moore and Sagaria (1988) suggested that patterns of career advancement in higher education differ among administrative specialty areas, namely, academic, administrative, and student affairs. For example, at the individual career level, many persons in academic administration became administrators after having served in faculty positions. The career pattern was different for student affairs professionals who typically earn degrees and who are subsequently hired by their alma mater. Research results disclosed that the vast majority of position changes to senior levels occur within a specialty area. Generally, individuals who assume an academic affairs position of dean or provost possess administrative and faculty experience which is academic affairs related (Moore, 1983). Similarly, before individuals assume chief student affairs positions most of their previous positions were student affairs related (Dingerson, Rodman, & Wade, 1980).

Rowe's work (cited in Lincoln, 1986) advocated a commitment to seek and to ameliorate what was termed "micro-inequities" that confront women in higher education. Micro-inequities, or daily and debilitating inequities that are not large enough to be covered by law, but which,

nevertheless, abuse and wound the spirit of women and minorities who attempt to be part of the largely white, male-dominated world often permit younger, underqualified, inexperienced aspirants to make appropriate moves into positions of more authority. Lincoln (1986) equated a commitment to micro-inequities resolution with a commitment to a more gender-free professional socialization process.

Lincoln (1986) cautioned researchers against promulgating that men do not face their own crises but, rather, that men's experiences and choices often are constructed as quite different because of the support and sponsorship networks that characterize most male-dominated professions. Lincoln (1986) contended that transitions are more explicit and more painful for women because of the combined public and private discrimination, harassment, discouragement, and thin networks.

The present study was, in part, an exploration of the factors and forces which have proven successful for men and women who achieve upper-level administrative positions in one area of higher education. Specifically, it focused upon the perceptions of various administrators regarding their ascent to senior level positions in the area of student affairs.

Statement of the Problem

Women have always been a major force in our society; yet, their history, sociology, art, literature, and, indeed, women themselves have long been relegated to second-class status. An increased awareness of women in all segments and at all levels of society has intensified the focus on women and women's issues. A greater focus on women's issues is also occurring in higher education. However, with any attempt to make all areas of higher

education more accessible to women must come an effort to make the field more sensitive and responsive to them.

There are very few women holding positions in one of the seven power positions in the university identified by Gross and Grambsch (1968). Researchers have determined that at the beginning of the 1980s only 2% of these positions were held by minority women and only 14% were held by white women (Shakeshaft, 1980, 1986). More recently, the American Council of Education Office of Women in Higher Education determined that the numbers for all administrative positions are somewhat higher for white women. However, neither white nor minority women are represented in proportion to males who primarily occupy top ranks (Pearson, Shavlik, & Touchton, 1989).

Stimpson and Cobb (1987) reported that the number of women in senior administrative positions in higher education doubled during the 1980s; now, over 300 chief executive officers of colleges and universities are women. Today, women are being considered as serious candidates for positions; however, many attitudes which pervade institutions have remained virtually unchanged; gains have often been minimal. Salary discrepancies between men and women exist at every level of the university. The student affairs picture is no different. A recent survey of Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAO) revealed that male chief student affairs officers had greater mean salaries when compared to women counterparts from public and private institutions (Robinson, Walker, & Walker, 1990). Unfortunately, as women seek senior administrative positions, they are frequently impeded, being perceived primarily as

"child-bearers." Before any significant improvements in the status of women can be achieved, women must be perceived as fully capable as men.

Much of the literature related to career patterns for women addresses the personal backgrounds of women whose career paths have led to upper-level administrative positions in organizations and factors related to "successful careering" (Barrax, 1985). A major aim in conducting this study was to examine similarities and differences in the career profiles of men and women who have achieved similar administrative positions in the area of student affairs in a university setting. A comprehensive survey instrument designed to elicit information regarding administrator career development and factors perceived as important for career development was used to accomplish this aim. The primary focus of the study was on educational and professional factors which influenced career mobility in a specialized area of higher education administration, student affairs.

There is a need to determine what factors have played a role in facilitating differential upward mobility of student affairs administrators who have ascended to upper-level positions. Most of the documented studies represent the general area of higher education administration. This study was designed to contribute more specifically to the body of knowledge about career patterns of successful student affairs administrators. The researcher identified selected studies in higher education administration and sought to determine the extent to which these situations/findings applied to the student affairs profession.

The following research questions were investigated:

1. What are the differences in rank between senior administrative positions held by men and women in student affairs?

2. What are the differences in factors/forces which encourage mobility for men and women in upper levels of student affairs administration?
3. What are the differences in factors/forces which inhibit mobility for men and women in upper levels of student affairs administration?
4. What career patterns have proven successful for men and women who become upper-level student affairs administrators?

Theoretical Framework

Presently, there exists no theory with regard to career paths in which women progress toward upper administrative levels of student affairs. Yet, factors which affect women in student affairs may similarly affect women who are employed in higher education administration generally. Therefore, the theoretical framework for this study borrows from two conceptualizations grounded in (a) higher education administration for women and (b) higher education administrators in selected specialty areas.

Lafontaine and McKenzie (1985) outlined a theoretical framework which explained one source of the differential and inequitable treatment that women face in higher education administration. In the theory, Lafontaine and McKenzie (1985) contended that regardless of efforts to ensure that women have equal opportunity to advance to administrative positions, they "remain an anomaly within male-defined paradigms of knowledge and power" (Lafontaine & McKenzie, p. 19). This concept has served as the basis for Lafontaine and McKenzie's (1985) theory of role and status inequity. The researchers expressed the importance of developing ways and means to "increase the number of women in administration and

to establish the legitimacy of women to hold these positions" (Lafontaine & McKenzie, p. 19).

Concurring with Pfeffer (1981), Lafontaine and McKenzie (1985) identified formal authority as "the basis for authority and governance in an organization" (p. 2). Specifically, organizational members recognize and legitimize communications according to the source(s) from which they are initiated. Lafontaine and McKenzie (1985) contended that formal authority should be vested in any appropriate member of an organization, regardless of gender. Often, the effectiveness of formal authority is diminished by extraneous factors, thus, undermining the legitimacy of a position. When gender is considered an extraneous factor in this regard, occupational sex-typing results, that is, a member lacks an appropriate characteristic. Lack of a necessary characteristic can undermine a member's organizational position.

The concept of occupational sex-typing is identified and exists when an occupation is comprised of a majority of one gender and when the expectation is that it should be (Lafontaine & McKenzie, 1985). The theorists drew from Brown's assumption (cited in Lafontaine & McKenzie, 1985) that ideologies surrounding the pursuit of these occupations define labor pools which draw from images considered ideal for the occupation. Two major implications were outlined as practical in this theoretical framework:

1. The "other sex" is de facto discouraged from seeking or being sought for positions considered inappropriate; and

2. The formal authority of the "other sex" is undermined. Any communication is invariably qualified for the misplaced gender, often resulting in incongruity, inequity, and differential treatment.

Lafontaine and McKenzie (1985) concurred with the findings of the "Leaders in Transition: National Survey in Higher Education" (Pennsylvania State University, 1982) that administrative positions in higher education lack women's representation, and women are accorded negative sentiment when they secure such positions. Because social norms designate administrative positions in higher education as male, women are viewed as "woman occupants." Women, then, invariably are viewed and exist as outsiders (Lafontaine & McKenzie, 1985, p. 22). Similarly, a president, dean, or chancellor who has achieved role and status is perceived primarily as a woman and, then, as an administrator or colleague. According to Kanter (1977), the pressure to satisfy this dual role and status affords a woman great stress to fulfill expectations of sex-role and of an occupation in management.

Lafontaine and McKenzie (1985) considered several research findings (e.g., Astin, Mattfeld, Oltman, Schetlin, & Scott) to structure a theoretical framework, concluding that because the status ascribed to administrative positions is relatively high, and because the status ascribed to women is generally low, women administrators in higher education are likely to be treated inequitably as well. Lafontaine and McKenzie (1985) delineated factors which are typical of this inequity in administration. These included hard-core sexism in academe, differential placement within the organization, unequal access to rewards, and lack of recognition for contributions.

Researchers (Lafontaine & McKenzie, 1985) identified four responses which are characteristic of women when treated as outlined above. Women use

1. withdrawal--when their role is challenged,
2. benign resignation--tacitly acknowledging their illegitimacy as an administrator,
3. substitute authority--with another authority , such as a mentor, who has the strength to authorize and serve as an influence, and
4. struggle for formal authority--interpersonal confrontations may result as women wrest from others the authority they deserve.

Rationale for the Approach to the Study

With the advent of the '70s came a focus on the problem(s) created by the underrepresentation of women in positions of higher education. Between 1970 and 1980 several foundations, including Ford, Carnegie, and Danforth, provided more than \$3 million to support projects designed to promote administrative advancement of women (Tinsley, 1985). This figure does not include the number of dollars spent on national identification projects, programs to study the status of women, and training institutes for the advancement and retention of women with regard to senior-level positions.

A very important component of higher education, the student affairs profession, has experienced change continually throughout the past 3 decades and is considered the fastest growing of the administrative offices on the college/university campus (Skorheim, 1987). Unfortunately, the rate of women's involvement in the upper level of student affairs administration has not increased proportionately. Between 1975 and 1983,

researchers reported that the greatest number of women in senior positions in higher education administration held positions in academic affairs, followed by student affairs (Touchton & Shavlik, 1984). During this period the number of women holding top positions in student affairs increased slightly; however, women held only 18% of the total positions in student affairs.

Much of the research conducted with regard to women in college and university administration has focused upon the broad area of academic administration (Barrax, 1985; Benton, 1980; Clarke, 1988). Yet, while the literature on career patterns of women in administrative positions in higher education is sparse, the scope of research related to student affairs is practically nonexistent. The study of the ascent of women to administrative levels in student affairs and/or barriers which impede such progress is a relatively new inquiry. Because research on women in college and university administration is limited, much inference about this group is based on findings from studies of women in other professions (Moore & Wollitzer, 1979). It is not known whether the paucity of women's studies in student affairs literature reflects an attitude which pervades a male-dominated profession; however, the limited volume of research is positively correlated with the limited number of women in senior positions.

The present study was designed to determine whether findings that are applicable to the broader field of higher education administration hold true for student affairs professionals. If the factors which influence women's participation in student affairs administration were known, then intervention strategies could be developed, if necessary, and implemented

to influence the number of women who advance to senior administrative positions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine differences between men and women in senior administrative positions in student affairs with regard to factors that influenced their advancement. The study was designed to identify upper-level student affairs administrators and to examine their perceptions regarding factors that relate to upward mobility in the profession. The study was further intended to determine what men and women administrators experienced as they advanced in their careers, how they behave, and attitudes each possesses which may account for factors to be identified and corrected.

Population and Sample

The population for this study consisted of upper-level student affairs administrators who hold positions as vice president or vice chancellor, associate vice president or associate vice chancellor, assistant vice president or assistant vice chancellor, dean, and associate dean and who are members of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) or the National Association of Women in Education (NAWE).

Data for the study was collected by way of a survey of senior student affairs administrators. Using membership rosters of NASPA and NAWE, a sample of administrators who hold the title of associate dean or above was selected from the population using a regular interval procedure and mailed a questionnaire. There was no restriction on type of institution; therefore, responses were solicited from administrators at private and public universities and colleges.

Instrumentation

The survey instrument used in this study was "Career Paths in Higher Education Administration." Designed by Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, and Marin (1988), this instrument elicits information in three general areas. These are (a) *career development*, with respect to how administrator(s) entered the profession, types of occupational and administrative experiences, and future goals; (b) *factors perceived as important for career development*, including necessary training and education as well as barriers that can hinder mobility; and (c) *demographic characteristics*.

Need for the Study

Women and men face different problems as they relate to patterns of career mobility in higher education (Barrax, 1985; Clarke, 1988; Smith, 1985; Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick & Marin, 1988). Finkelstein's (1982) studies revealed that women and minorities are usually in lower academic ranks. Upward mobility is slower for women than it is for males. According to the Chronicle of Higher Education (1982), the number of women who were full professors increased only 1% from 1972 to 1982. Only 10% of the full professors in higher education in 1982 were women.

In a study of 52 administrative positions at 1,037 institutions of higher education, Van Alstyne, Mensel, Withers, and Mallott (1977) found that 79% were held by white men, 14% by white women, 5% by minority men, and 2% by minority women. Women and minorities generally held positions at institutions with largely minority or female student bodies.

More recently in a survey of more than 3,000 college and university administrators, researchers determined the composition of the

administrative structure of higher education (Pennsylvania State University, 1982). Results show that 91.8% of the administrators were white, 5.4% were black, while other minorities comprised 2.8%. Approximately 20% of those surveyed were women who were concentrated in positions as head librarian, registrar, and directors of financial aid. In contrast to women, men administrators were employed in larger, comprehensive institutions of higher education.

As can be seen, there has been some increase in the number of women in administration; however, progress to higher levels has been minimal. Likewise, research which focuses on career patterns of senior-level women in student affairs administration is limited. Implications for this specialty area have been made from a body of knowledge in the larger field of higher education administration. Although related, there is no evidence that research in higher education is representative of student affairs practice in particular. This study, then, addresses the need for information on the dynamics that influence or inhibit career mobility in administrators in student affairs.

Is there an attitude of exclusion which is equated with elitism at the top of the profession? Studies previously cited by Clarke (1988) and Sagaria (1988) concluded that personal and institutional factors combine to affect career mobility of women administrators in higher education. Factors which affect differential advancement between men and women to senior administrative positions in student affairs are not known. There is a need to understand practices and perceptions, if any, which serve as barriers, inhibitors, and/or catalysts to senior level positions.

Tinsley (1985) reported that in 1983 there were still only .9 women in senior administrative positions per institution. Researchers in more recent studies obtained similar findings (Pearson, Shavlik, & Touchton, 1989; Reisser & Zurfluh, 1987; Rossi, 1989; Sagaria, 1988; Sandler, 1986). Perhaps related to this situation is the fact that the federal government has a diminished role in higher education and affirmative action, attributable to the economic effects of federal budget deficits, the national debt, and new weapons systems (Kerr, 1984). This change in climate increases the need for women to gain sufficient credibility and resources to secure senior administrative positions. Kerr (1984) warned that a chilly climate may affect practices as they relate to hiring and promoting someone who is not part of the dominant culture. Implications of this and/or similar studies can increase awareness regarding existing problems that affect career mobility in student affairs and enhance the potential for remediation.

Definition of Terms

A *career ladder* refers to the intervening steps between career entry and the final destination that signifies authority and responsibility (Lincoln, 1986).

For purposes of this study, a *career path* is the major route in which one passes toward continued pursuit of consecutive progressive achievements in professional or business life and also referred to as "career pattern."

A *career pattern* is a combination of one's occupational experiences, career and life goals, alternate goals, and ways of attaining such goals (Good, 1973). For purposes of this study, a career pattern is the product of the number of years since obtaining one's highest degree to the start of current

position, the academic department from which highest degree was obtained, faculty experience, and gender.

Educational administration is the direction, control, and management of all matters pertaining to school affairs, including business administration, since all aspects of school affairs may be considered as carried on for educational ends (Good, 1973).

Higher education is instruction offered to persons of considerable intellectual maturity, usually requiring previous preparation through the secondary school. It includes all education above the level of the secondary school given in college, universities, graduate schools, and professional schools (Good, 1973).

In this study, *higher education administration* involves the management and direction of all matters pertaining to the affairs of the college, university, graduate, and professional schools, including those which relate to academic, fiscal, business, and/or student affairs.

An *internal occupational specialty market* is one of two discretely related labor markets, i.e., designated internal or external, which determine the allocation for jobs, and explains differences among individuals and social inequity in a social system. Each organization or firm generates its own internal occupational specialty market and imposes a bureaucratic mode of social control over employees, distributing different rewards and opportunities to them (Breneman & Youn, 1988).

Personnel administration encompasses management of all groups of persons involved in the activities of an institution of higher learning, including academic staff, nonacademic personnel, and students (Good, 1973).

Student affairs is the general department which encompasses all student life-related activity, including student (personnel) services. It includes all nonacademic affairs that relate to students.

For purposes of this study, *student personnel administration* involves the control, direction, and management of services specifically provided for students of higher learning. Exclusive of classroom teaching, it encompasses specific individual and group services in higher education, primarily of a consultative nature and concerned with the total welfare of the student, such as educational and vocational counseling, student employment, housing services, student organization advisement, and coordination.

Within the parameters of this study, *upper-level administration in student affairs* consists of hierarchical positions as vice president or vice chancellor, associate vice president or associate vice chancellor, assistant vice president or assistant vice chancellor, dean, and associate dean, as reflected by membership lists of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) and the National Association of Women in Education (NAWE). These positions are also referred to as "senior-level positions."

Delimitations

This study was limited to men and women employed as student affairs administrators in private and public universities and colleges who hold membership in the professional associations of NASPA, and NAWE.

Overview of the Remainder of the Study

A review of the related literature is presented in Chapter 2 . Chapter 3 details the methodology of the study; it includes sampling, research

procedures, assessment measures, and data analyses. Results of the study and statistical tables are presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 reports a summary, discussion, and implications of the results of this study.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the past two decades, women have been the focus of much research and discussion. This focus includes an attempt to review concepts, principles, foundations of education, and attitudes that have historically placed women in a position subjugated to their male counterparts. It also reviews strategies developed and implemented to enhance egalitarianism, as it relates to women's issues.

Distinctions as man or woman are translated into socially relevant categories according to values, attitudes, norms, and ideals. As Smock (1977) put it,

Being born a female or male endows the individual with an unalterable biological makeup, but the definition of what it means to be female or male is given by the culture. In some cultures, femininity has been deemed compatible with a range of economic, social and political roles, whereas in others, it is associated almost entirely with domestic functions. (Smock, p. 386)

Culture and the social structure interact to define what it means to be a man or a woman in a given society at a given time in history. At the same time, each combines to determine the implications of the sex differences that society fosters. These implications extend to what a woman and a man may do and actually do in a given society, and also to the relations that are considered to be permissible and desirable between the sexes (Banks, 1979).

Theory and Concept

A review of several thoughts of inequalities facing women in society today may serve to deepen the understanding of the continuation of structures of modified male dominance in professions where the goal of equality of opportunity is accorded high priority and where many attempts have been made to improve the relative position of the female population. First, a review of the modernization and traditional concepts follow as each contrasts and relates to a frame of reference. Next, selected concepts are reviewed as they relate to careers and career pattern theory. A perspective of theoretical analyses of careers and lifestyles as they relate to the nature of interaction between academic careers and academic labor markets is also reviewed.

Modern versus Traditional

In all systems, both traditional and modern, a sex-role system in some form prevails. This concept encompasses the network of attitudes, feelings and behaviors which result from the prevalence of sex-role stereotyping (Chetwynd & Hartnett, 1978). While a sex-role system is complex and manifests itself in a variety of different forms, factors central to its operation are (a) the assignment on the basis of sex of one of two different series of personality traits, the masculine and feminine stereotypes which are thought of as being mutually exclusive; (b) the allocation on the basis of sex of different categories of activities considered to be necessary or useful for the sustenance and improvement of living; and (c) the investing of the male with a higher value than the female, whereby the characteristics, traits, and activities associated with the male are deemed to have more

importance and to have greater value than those associated with the female (Chetwynd & Hartnett, 1978).

Modernization theorists seek to explain the failure of women's life conditions to change in the expected way--that is, in the direction of greater freedom from sex-typing and achievement. The underlying assumption is that, once the imperfections are removed, gender-based inequality will disappear. In contrast to this approach, the position of women and the inequalities which they face are interpreted in terms of the needs of the system itself. Inequalities are, thus, seen as intrinsic rather than extrinsic to any selected system.

The main tenets of the modernization theory are that all societies passing through the process of modernization converge towards each other and towards an end stage (Inkeles & Smith, 1974). In relation to the position of women, a central assumption underlying the modernization thesis is that, when cultures undergo a more or less continuous process of modernization, usually accompanied by industrialization, the extent of sex differentiation and sex typing of roles, identities, and attitudes decline. Ascribed values are gradually replaced by those of achievement in the allocation of social roles. A hypothesis about the changes to be expected in the position of women as a result of modernization was put forward by Inkeles and Smith (1974). In a study which focused on the characteristics of "modern man" and structural correlates, these researchers predicted that "the liberating forces making for modernization would act on men's attitudes and incline them to accord women status and rights more nearly equal to those enjoyed by men" (Inkeles & Smith, p. 26). Their findings indicated that the syndrome of modernity included the granting of more

autonomy and rights of those of lesser status and power in general. In relation to women in particular, the modern man would tend to favor the rights of women to move and work outside the home and to participate actively in economic life. Thus, women would be more likely to participate in the labor force, to hold public office, and to have more independence.

From the viewpoint of women, a modern society refers to egalitarianism in the sense that achievement rather than ascription on the basis of biological sex is the basis of role allocation (Megarry, 1984). It also refers to the extent to which biculturalism or participation in both instrumental and expressive value-orientations characterizes the women and men of society.

According to Inghelhart's (1977) concept, the amount of overlap between roles and value sets increases with women at all social levels playing roles in and participating in the value systems of both the public and private spheres, while men continue to participate almost exclusively in the public sphere. Women, regardless of their marital status, can be described to a far greater extent as bicultural in the sense that they move, with greater or lesser ease, between the two spheres and their associated demands (Lee & Gropper, 1974). A major difference is in their motivation to work. Increasingly, a woman's right to work is regarded as an integral part of her self-fulfillment. Economic necessity often combines with this motive but is no longer the only legitimate reason for female employment. Lee and Gropper (1974) contended that women participate in the public sphere, where predominant values and norms are those of achievement, universalism, and specificity self-orientation. At the same time, women are anchored in the private, personal sphere, whose norms and values are to a

greater extent those of collectivity orientation, affectivity, particularism, diffuseness, and ascription. The demands which these two sets of values and norms place upon women are often conflicting. That is, conformity to one set precludes, or makes difficult, conformity to the other.

Men, on the whole, remain monocultural. However, there is evidence of signs of value change, such as a tendency for men to actively participate in the private sphere, although more in household than in childrearing tasks (Inglehart, 1977). The organizational structures of modern societies, which include work environments, rarely facilitate biculturalism among men while actively encouraging it among women. In many contemporary professions, it would appear that women and men share in the same set of behavior-orienting values as they play complementary social roles. However, Lee and Gropper (1974) determined that in higher administrative ranks, a greater divergence between the sexes can be expected, with women and men having distinctly different behavior orientations and playing distinctly different social roles. Behavior orientations of women were subordinate to those of men. While women participate in the labor force, the majority withdraw from gainful employment for marriage, with the exception of those who continue to work out of economic necessity in order to supplement insufficient family income. Participation in both sets of values--called biculturalism here--is largely confined to single and widowed women in such societies, the norm for married women being to withdraw into the private sphere.

Inglehart (1977) reported that it is considered acceptable for married women to pursue gainful employment when the good of the family calls for it. Further, it is acceptable for married women to pursue charitable work,

often a nonremunerated form of social work. This employment option is tolerated because it represents an extension of the traditional caring values which women exercise in the home.

Goode's (1963) contention in the early 1960s that men have shown no great eagerness to assume the daily work of the house and children remains true today. Furthermore, the emergence of the anti-equal rights movement in recent years illustrates that adherence to the traditional patterns, for whatever reasons, persists. It also receives support from contemporary institutions, academic and otherwise.

Balbo (1981) pointed out the unique nature of women's work. The majority of working women today are no longer condemned to a life of work for survival, although most of them are committed to a paid job for economic reasons. It is inherent to a model of life and reflective of ideals of a society of well-being and self-fulfillment that women are motivated to work. However, Balbo (1981) further maintained that women do not participate in the labor market on an equal basis with men.

Interestingly, the labor market as described by modernization is stratified into a primary sector, consisting of relatively well-rewarded secure jobs with promotional ladders, fringe benefits, and better working conditions and a secondary sector containing lower paid, insecure occupations with low prospects and none of the advantages of primary-sector jobs. Barron and Norris' (1975) research determined that the majority of women are concentrated in the secondary sector.

Deem (1980) concluded that although there is some opportunity for self-fulfillment and recognition outside the home, women's primary status continues to be derived from domesticated activities. The primacy of the

domestic role responsibilities for women continues. Thus, most women are prevented from opting to forego motherhood, while at the same time they are required to pursue an independent career in order to fulfill simultaneously two sets of demands from home and employment—that is, to be bicultural. While they have relatively more freedom than women in traditional employment settings to assume roles in the public domain, most women in contemporary and/or technical settings remain in a subordinate position. They still have fewer options and less opportunity than men to determine their lives. Only in some spheres are women and men considered to be relatively equal. Some careers are blurring the boundaries between male and female roles by minimizing sex differences, but they do not completely discount them.

Career Patterns

Theory and Concept

"Although women have always had jobs, they have rarely been permitted careers" (Mednick & Tangri, 1972, p.14). Maintaining that career theory research is limited in its application to women, Stein and Bailey (1973) advocated that career theory rectify its relative neglect of females.

Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrod, and Henma (1951) were among the first to define career patterns for women, delineating patterns as work-oriented, marriage-oriented, and a combination of the two. Similarly, Sheehy (1974) described women's roles as either "nurturer," "achiever," or "integrator."

The premise that career models require different tracks for men and women (Tiedeman & O'Hara, 1963) is attributed to the differential career impact which marriage has on the two sexes. Marriage is not part of men's career patterns, and it is this role which distinguishes men from women

who are oriented toward marriage (Ginzberg, 1966). Marriage is also a predictor of whether women chose occupations within or outside of the home. Studies show that girls tend to plan for career involvement only after decisions about marriage have been made (Astin & Myint, 1971; Farmer, 1975; Ginzberg, 1966; Matthews & Tiedeman, 1964).

In a study of parity in salaries for men and women, Rury (1986) reported a distinction between men's and women's career paths in education. Specifically, this distinction was attributed to the inability of women to work subsequent to marriage or their unwillingness to do so. Rury (1986) remarked that when relegated to their "real career as wives and mothers, women did not remain in a position long enough to compete" for the ranks in administration (Rury, p. 225).

Because career patterns of men are significantly different than those of women, Super (1957) outlined several categories of career patterns for women. First, the stable homemaker marries while attending school or very shortly after completion. After beginning a brief career, the conventional career woman marries and becomes a homemaker. The stable working career pattern is a preliminary to marriage for a single woman who begins a career directly after completing school. In the double-track pattern, an educated career woman takes an occasional time out from upper and lower occupational levels for childbearing; in the interrupted career pattern a married homemaker reenters the workforce. An unstable career pattern often represents lower socioeconomic levels, reflecting an irregular work pattern, where the woman works during times of economic need. Finally, in the multiple trial career a woman has no genuine life work and holds a series of unrelated, unstable positions (Super, p. 27). According to Super

(1957), no single career pattern emerged from this concept whereby women could combine marriage, children, and a career.

In another point of view investigators (Harmon, Birk, Fitzgerald, & Tanney, 1973) averred that women's career issues are resolved when husbands and wives work out all aspects of career and domestic responsibilities cooperatively. The woman may compromise by interrupting or deferring her career development to devote most of her time to the children. She rejects the conventional career pattern of performing household chores in favor of a nontraditional living style, while the man does heavy outdoor work. The conventional woman will either repress any motivation for individual achievement, retreat from achievement for fear of failure, encourage her husband's achievement, or satisfy all of her developmental needs through her marriage.

Internal Occupational Specialty Market

Limited occupational aspirations have been imposed by sex-role stereotyping of the job market (Kreps, 1971; Schlossberg, 1976). For two decades women have been moving at an increasing rate into formerly male-dominated occupations (Glazer-Malbin & Waehrer, 1972). In spite of longstanding sex-role-related barriers, i.e., physical, legal, technical, cultural, sociological, and familial factors, rate increases have been evidenced in professional employment, employment trends, and hiring practices of women.

Women await similar results in higher education administration. As a general premise, Peterson (1974) concluded that women in academic administration seek open access to that which they are entitled as a result of their abilities, interests, and willingness to work. A former university

president, Peterson (1974) believed that such equality of opportunity is a woman's right, that it should be granted willingly, and even with enthusiasm, by those who make the decisions.

A psychological analysis of careers and life stages concerns itself only with elements of individual choice and personal development over life stages (Youn, 1988). By themselves these perspectives do not explain the nature of interaction between academic careers and academic labor markets.

The concept of internal labor market was developed as an administrative unit that can occur within a single organization or can span establishments, such as a trade union, professional association, or department (Youn, 1988). Careers occur within and between organization(s); at the same time, organizations form internal labor markets.

Each institution forms its own internal occupational market and imposes a bureaucratic mode of social control over its employees; individual career success depends on the workings of that market. Career mobility depends on the nature of occupational markets. The point of entry influences career mobility and outcome; norms of each department impinge on career outcomes (Breneman & Youn, 1988).

The nature of occupational markets remain uncertain because organizational structure and factors which affect careers and mobility within the firm are largely ignored. Researchers (Breneman & Youn, 1988) argued that the nature of the occupational market outcomes may be explained by the nature of the academic organization. They found the basic problems of occupational specialty (academic) markets to be rooted in the structure of American higher education. Cimperman (1986) has attributed the limited

progress of women in leadership positions to negative stereotypes in institutions of higher education.

Positional inequality formed in careers is generated by the organization, firm, institution, industry, and among sectors of the economy. Embedded in the academic specialty market structure are financial incentives affected by individual positions, nature of the organization, and career mobility (Breneman & Youn, 1988).

Breneman and Youn (1988) believed that wage competition is the force which drives the occupational market. They noted that wages are heavily constrained by institutional inflexibility rather than skills and employee merit. Human capital theory posits that wages are largely a function of ability, education, and training.

In a test of these positions, Barbezat (1988) discovered that academic salary differentials remain substantial in favor of men, even after controlling for differences in scholarly productivity, experience, academic field, and institution. The forces that determine a professional's occupational attainment also affect earnings. Rewards provided by organizations that emphasize research are distinctively different than those offered by teaching institutions. Thus, the nature of an occupation imposes rigid career paths and early career attainments.

Institutional ideologies vary and so do institutional structures of occupations. This, in effect, contributes to the persistence of inequality among employees, market turnovers, and the rate of specialty career mobility. In a study of gender and mobility in the academic market, Sagaria (1988) discovered that the ways in which positions change varies for women

and men. This variation is influenced by their administrative specialty and by movement within and between institutions.

In advancing the concept that employment in higher education administration remains an unfinished agenda, Tinsley, Secor, and Kaplan (1984) maintained that educational administrators no longer prioritize concern for women's issues. However, it is the employment structure in higher education which remains highly resistant to change. They concluded that administrators and women themselves must exercise a sincere and active commitment to advance the position of women in higher education.

A Woman's Place

An investigation into a woman's background and sex-role orientation may prove important in determining the reasons for her success or failures. Therefore, selected works related to the potential for and probability of the career advancement of women are reviewed here.

Comparative Socialization

Lewis (1968) voiced the sentiments of a contemporary era, commenting that the girl who aims for a career is likely to be frustrated and dissatisfied with herself. Representative of the attitude of the 1960s, Lewis (1968) suggested that a girl would be better adjusted if she remained content to be a housewife.

Cameron (1978) captured the climate of two preceding decades when he commented that women in traditionally male careers "were considered curiosities--when they were considered at all" (p. 17). The subtle and elusive form of discrimination in the 1970s did not approach the outrageous manner of the 1950s and 1960s (Cameron, 1978). In spite of many positive changes, such as the passage of the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the Title VII

Civil Rights Act of 1964, employment discrimination continued to exist. Careers for women were considered to be a new ethic (Bernstein, 1984). However, many women still could not see themselves entering certain occupations because sex-role socialization impeded their likelihood to venture into new occupations.

Historically, socially acceptable and stereotypical gender constructs differ. Gornick and Moran (1972) found these manifestations to be evidenced by the association of women with traits as dependence, passivity, fragility, low pain tolerance, nonaggression, noncompetitiveness, inner orientation, interpersonal orientation, empathy, sensitivity, nurturance, subjectivity, intuitiveness, yieldingness, receptivity, inability to risk, emotional liability, and supportiveness. Simultaneously, they found that society has assigned masculine attributes as independence, aggression, competitiveness, innovation, self-discipline, stoicism, activity, objectivity, analytical-mindedness, courage, unsentimentality, rationality, confidence, and emotional control.

Often a woman experiences the conflict of exhibiting characteristics considered positive or desirable for men and adults. Consequently, her femininity questioned, she behaves in a prescribed feminine manner and accepts second-class adult status. These social pressures to conform to sex roles restrict her career choices and upward career mobility (Hackett & Betz, 1981).

It is through early socialization that women have been taught to be successful in different tasks than men. Girls become involved in domestic and nurturing activities and less involved in sports, mechanical activities, and similar masculine activities. Having a predominance of mentors in

traditional occupations and roles, they emulate those who model similar tasks (Greendorfer, 1983 cited in Howard-Hamilton & Robinson, 1991; Hackett & Betz, 1981). Girls are encouraged to exhibit dependence, docility, and passivity and are discouraged from displaying socially inappropriate aggression and, subsequently, authenticity (Bardwick, 1971; Kundsinn, 1974). Women repress their aggression and strengths while men repress their tears and emotions. Feminine socialization is initiated early in life as girls receive more eye contact and verbalizations from parents (Lewis, 1972). Their first toys are dolls, comb and brush sets, easy-bake ovens, and are of a domestic type. Similar sex-typed play continues throughout early school years (Baruch, 1972; Farmer, 1975; Tresemer, 1974). The development of gender differences in play and school suggest that girls are precocious in social development and achieve well in early school years; however, as adolescents, they lag behind boys in career aspirations and development and strive for a lower rate of academic achievement (Clark, 1988; Kelly & Jordan, 1990). This is especially true at the college level (Tresemer, 1974). Actively discouraged against pursuing nontraditional roles, often women do not view themselves as capable to perform certain tasks (Hackett & Betz, 1981).

Parents and school have a powerful influence on young girls' sex-role training. This is evident as children's perceptions of the world of work are influenced by their parents' impressions (Schlossberg, 1974). A daughter's limited occupational aspiration(s) may be attributable, in part, to her parents' fear that her femininity may be affected (Farmer, 1971). Confusion on the part of parents and daughter regarding the appropriateness of career choice may be attributed to vaguely defined social roles for women.

Research (Ginzberg, 1966) showed that family perceptions strongly affect the career orientations of family members; often boys receive insufficient family guidance in career exploration while girls receive even less. Duquin (1979) later determined that women were relegated to nonprofessional positions as a result of traditional socialization patterns.

According to Hole and Levine (1971), girls learned an early lesson that women need to be "smart enough to get a man, but not smart enough to threaten him" (p. 204). As a result, married women were reluctant to earn more money than their husbands. Their reluctance to accept a position of higher status, coupled with a fear of upsetting a good marriage, affected the level of a woman's position attainment (Bird, 1984). Research (Helson, 1972; Matfeld & Van Aken, 1965; Rossi, 1989) showed that women who are committed to a career desired fewer children and bore them at a later age than noncareer women; fewer children were born to the professional marriage. A disturbing finding in Rossi's (1965, 1970) discovery reflected that most women believed that even wanting something more than motherhood is unnatural and was evidence of emotional disturbance. As Patricia Roberts Harris (1974) put it,

Since no mother's preference accompanies the application of the woman Ph.D. who took time out to have two healthy babies, and thereby learned self-discipline and responsibility in a way that is difficult for her preoccupied and dependent spouse, and because the assumption prevails that women will be mothers and wives before seriously indulging their intellectual interests, women tend to get short shrift in the academic selection process. (Harris, 1974, p. 23)

Occupational interests crystallize and organize in a differential manner for men and women (Harmon, 1972). Boys enroll in such courses as sciences, mathematics, or shop, while girls are more likely to enroll in

languages, writing, homemaking, and/or clerical courses. Early (personal communication, February, 1992) felt that it is through academic curricula that women limit their job possibilities.

Gottfredson (1981) suggested that occupational preference results from a combination of a woman's self-concept and occupational images, i.e., sex-type, prestige level, and field. Job opportunity, barriers, and occupational preference combine to determine a range of acceptable occupational alternatives. These factors play an important role in the development of women's perceptions of self, occupations, and of barriers or opportunities in the environment. Gottfredson (1981) recommended introducing women to a wide variety of career opportunities and role models, and refocusing women's perceptions of barriers.

Hackett and Betz (1981) proposed a model to redesign women's experiences in higher education. Their model provided for opportunity and encouragement for women to become involved in sports, student government, leadership, and other traditionally male-dominated activities. It exposed women to female role models in a variety of fields, as faculty, staff, and administrators, and in occupations they may consider entering. The model designed ways and means by which women received faculty recognition and were encouraged to pursue careers in fields which they are capable.

In an effort to determine why some women invest in their careers more heavily than others, Mandelbaum's (1983) research findings showed women who lead stressful lives remained vulnerable to an inner tension to cope with a predominantly male profession. Results suggested that (a) some women develop independent of the expectations associated with

traditionally sex-appropriate behavior, and (b) career persistence is related to one's willingness to overcome obstacles during early years. It seems clear that attitudes and motivations that underlie the career aspirations, plans, and decisions of women are the inevitable products of social norms and socialization processes that put women into powerful psychological conflict as they are forced to cope with occupational choices (Early, personal communication, February, 1992).

Attribution

Achievement has been defined (Clark, 1988) as an internalized standard of excellence that motivates an individual to do well in any achievement-oriented situation which involves intelligence and leadership ability. Much of the research (Gottfredson, 1981; Hackett & Betz, 1981; Howard-Hamilton, 1991) has illustrated that women's socialization and activities limit the achievement options which they consider for themselves.

Two decades ago a study (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, & Vogel, 1970) revealed that characteristics representative of a healthy adult closely resembled those of a healthy male and differed significantly from a healthy female. Compared to men, the healthy mature woman was more submissive, less adventurous, more excitable in minor crisis, less aggressive, more conceited about appearance, less independent, more easily influenced, less competitive, more easily hurt (feelings), less objective, and, less math and science inclined.

Much of a woman's decision to have a career and/or any choice related thereto is based on a child's sex-role orientation (Howard-Hamilton & Robinson, 1991). In studying the female executive, Hennig and Jardim

(1977) determined that parents' reaction to their daughter and her activities is crucial to the development of her career identity. Where a daughters' accomplishments were reinforced by both parents, increased achievement and competitiveness as well as a heightened sense of security was evidenced. The converse resulted in girls' self-imposed inferior intellectual, psychological, and emotional abilities (Clark, 1988; Greendorfer cited in Howard-Hamilton & Robinson, 1991).

This inferiority was articulated in earlier studies (Hansen & Rapoza, 1978) when similar attributes were ascribed to women and minorities as inferior intelligence, smaller brain, scarcity of geniuses, and content with position as ascribed by society. Both groups, subjected to discrimination, were limited by their education which confined them to traditional jobs and fear of their competition. Both groups were usually barred from supervisory positions and were deprived of political importance. Having no family precedents for new aspirations, social and professional segregation was not uncommon among these groups.

The American Psychological Association's Task Force on Sex Bias (1975) concluded that family values, a girl's own personal experiences, and societal attitudes influence identity formation. This supported earlier findings (Almquist & Angrist, 1970) that parental attitude and support afforded to their career-oriented daughters significantly influence career pursuit. Research reflected that daughters whose mothers endorsed careers for women rated higher in self-esteem and competence. Interestingly, even when mothers discouraged daughters against combining career and marriage, career-oriented daughters persisted in their aspirations and sought

jobs having greater opportunity for advancement (Clark, 1988; Horner, 1972; Feinberg, 1982).

Educational influences play an important part in sending messages to children which evolve into their personal gender-role behavior. Investigators noted that it is through this process that individual self-concepts with appropriate gender characteristics are developed (Howard-Hamilton & Robinson, 1991).

Maximum self-esteem serves as an internal or stable attribution for success and as an external or unstable attribution for failure (Horner, 1972). In a review of selected studies of achievement motivation behaviors which affect performance levels in males and females, Howard-Hamilton (1991) reported that males motivated toward high achievement tend to be more confident, prefer intermediate risks situations, are persistent in achieving tasks, are active in college life, are successful in business, and maintain realistic aspirations.

Mednick, Tangri, and Hoffman (1975) discovered that career men and women attributed their own success to differential factors. High achievement-motivated men attributed their success to superior ability and effort and attributed their failures to their lack of effort or to bad luck. Women, on the other hand, attributed their success to chance or luck.

In a study (Weiskoff, 1972) comparing career pattern styles of professional women and homemakers, professional women had higher self-concepts and higher ego strengths. Their scores on personality inventories were higher on masculine constructs, while homemakers scored high on feminine scales. Professional women in predominantly male-dominated careers attributed their achievement to their husbands

more often than women who chose traditional career fields. Women in nontraditional careers aspired to higher levels of success and expressed greater commitment to their careers than traditional career women.

Women who achieve administrative positions evidence experiences during childhood, adolescence, and college, as well as exhibit personality traits and career patterns that differ from women who elect to remain in the classroom or nonadministrative jobs (Pope, 1982). A sample of administrators was compared to an equal number of women teachers, librarians, and counselors randomly selected from the same schools who had served a district for 5 years or more. The investigator (Pope, 1982) assessed similarities and differences by examining personal background, professional preparation and experience, present position, future plans, and personality traits. Findings indicated that most administrative women became interested in the field of educational administration after having received encouragement from another administrator. Career inhibitors identified were sex discrimination, lack of support from other women administrators, late start in administrative role, and short time in the district. Interestingly, over one-third of the respondents did not answer the question about inhibitors. Most women administrators felt they had no problems and indicated they made men feel part of the administrative team.

The majority of administrative women in Pope's (1982) study were between the ages of 50 and 59 and had studied beyond the master's degree (56.8%). Most nonadministrative women were 30 to 39 years of age, while only 35.4% had studied beyond the master's degree; none of the women reported having less than a bachelor's degree. The largest percentage of nonadministrative women (22.9%) received a master's degree in counseling

and had teaching experience of less than 10 years (48.9%). While 43.2% of administrative women had similar teaching experience, the highest number of master's degrees of this group (24.4%) was received in educational administration.

Many of the nonadministrative women came from families having three or fewer children (56.2%), lived in rural areas (20.8%), and had fathers who had not completed high school (47.9%). Comparatively, 2.3% of administrative women lived in rural areas, were members of families having three or fewer children (75%), and had fathers who had not completed high school (40.9%). More fathers (27%) and mothers (22.7%) of administrative women were employed in education or other professions, compared to nonadministrative fathers (16.7%) and mothers (12.5). More administrative women (68.2%) had tenure and held 12-month positions (61.4%), while all but one of the nonadministrative women had tenure; all nonadministrative women worked 10 months. Forty-one percent of administrative women were in their present position less than 5 years, and 40.9% of administrative women were in their present position 5 to 9 years; 41.7% had been in their present position from 5 to 9 years. None of the administrative women earned less than \$19,000 annually; nonadministrative women's salaries ranged from \$11,999 to almost \$23,000 (Pope, 1982).

A review of literature (Cimperman, 1986) on leadership and gender supported the concept that an effective leader cannot be defined by gender or gender-related traits. The investigator sought to determine whether men and women who hold administrative positions in institutions of higher education vary in their self-perceptions of leadership behavior. Results of

the study indicated that there was no significant difference between leadership style, range, and adaptability of 320 male and 115 woman administrators. With this similarity in self-perception, this study (Cimperman, 1986) began to dispel myths that male administrators perceive their role as task-oriented and women administrators as nurturing.

In an examination of unique attributes typical of professional women and women in institutions of higher education (McEwen, Williams, & Engstrom, 1991), themes expressed reflected differences in male and female voices. These differences, similar to those conceptualized in Gilligan's (1982) work, attributed characteristics to men and women as follows (McEwen, Williams, & Engstrom, 1991, p. 443):

Women (Positive)

- *giving attention to building/maintaining relationships
- *noncompetitive and cooperative aspects of work
- *ethical issues
- *fairness and equity
- *focusing on context, process, and implications
- *having concern for fiscal responsibility
- *sensitive to personal issues
- *working to create positive work environment
- *attending to well-being and growth of human beings
- *expressing an overall feeling of responsibility to situations
- *accessible
- *willing to volunteer
- *involved
- *using reward and social power frequently and effectively
- *emphasizing conflict resolution
- *demonstrating intuitive-feeling dimensions
- *dealing with potentials
- *posing options and alternatives
- *creative, caring, nurturing
- *having well-developed teaching, problem solving, and counseling skills

Women (Negative)

- *unwilling to take risks
- *being workaholics
- *having to prove themselves

- *needing to be superwoman
- *being expected to be spokespersons about women's issues, regardless of their desire to assume this role

Men

- *offering objectivity
- *not affected by relationships or relationship considerations
- *being skilled in budget and finance issues (or perhaps bluffing effectively)
- *being demanding
- *not seeing themselves as victims
- *being goal-oriented
- *valuing competition and power
- *using expert and coercive power
- *giving attention to productivity, strategy, structure, and efficiency
- *having a need to measure success in tangible ways
- *still being linked to the "old-boy" network
- *frequently being engaged in technical or management positions
- *having difficulty celebrating one another's success.

Male respondents offered that they have become more feeling-oriented as the profession (mid- and entry levels) experiences the feminine voice. Men have obtained a personal and emotional balance in their lives when incorporating women's perspectives.

In studies (Anderson 1976; Hutt, 1983) among college students, the population which matures into administrators, attitudes of female graduate students were more nontraditional toward women's roles than those of male graduate students. Women's roles were viewed as traditional more often by men in traditionally male-dominated occupations than by men in occupations traditionally held by women. Most men agreed that men's attitudes about women's occupational roles influence women's choices. Most women disagreed with the notion, however.

Early investigations (Ginzberg, 1966; Wolfson, 1976) disclosed factors significant to career patterns of women. Factors included, but were not limited to, psychological support from parents, willingness to fight for top

jobs, marital status, husband's income, husband's attitude, number of children, age of youngest child, and marital satisfaction.

Historical Overview of Women in Higher Education

Education for women has never really been a priority and was virtually discounted in early America. In describing the colonial view of a woman as intellectually inferior, Rudolph (1962) maintained that her faculties were not worth training. According to Bass (1970), learning was considered a function of the leisure class and to admit women would be tantamount to lowering the overall prestige of those associated with education. Thus, women held no valid place in the world of academia.

The attempt by women to shatter the male educational citadel met with repeated frustration. In A History of Women's Education in the United States, Woody (1966) documented an account of a young female student proficient in Greek and Latin who sought admission to Yale University. The 12-year-old Lucinda Foote was denied admission to this superior male institution.

The establishment of early seminaries began in 1821, when Troy Seminary was created (Thomas, 1974). Mount Holyoke Seminary followed soon, receiving acclaim as the forerunner of the modern day prestigious college.

According to Conway (1974), as seminaries were expanding, an idea gained credence in New York: "Women's power was harnessed for secondary teaching" (p. 6). Continuing on, Conway (1974) depicted the goal of educating women as an "utilitarian one of securing a pool of trained teachers to staff the school system at a minimum cost" (p. 6). After having accepted them with reluctance, the academy gained

considerably through the education of women. In effect, by increasing the pool of eligible teachers, the number of male secondary students prepared for college would increase.

An important landmark in the education of women came in 1837 when Oberlin College permitted four women to matriculate. However, the Carnegie Commission (1973) cautioned against considering this "experiment" as a major breakthrough (Carnegie, p. 15). According to Bird (1972), these women were given a "watered-down" literary course and were expected to serve the men students at tables and remain silent in mixed classes (Bird, p. 60). However, to Oberlin's credit, it was the first regular institution to grant women the traditional baccalaureate. While several contemporary colleges permitted women to attend courses, they remained prohibited from acquiring the degree (Bird, 1972).

Oberlin's programs showed the extent to which women extended themselves to receive educational parity with men students. Conway (1981) documented accounts which allowances were made to dispense with Monday classes so that the women could do the college's laundry. Women were allowed to arrange other required chores, e.g., repairing men's clothes, so as not to interfere with class and recitations.

In the 1800s, the Catholic church began construction of a vast network of community-based academics. There seminaries became the forerunners of women's colleges. Top quality education for women was an idea whose fulfillment was inevitable.

Thomas (1974) offered an account of Matthew Vassar, a wealthy businessman who owned a brewery in Poughkeepsie, New York. Although he originally decided to donate his \$400,000 estate for a hospital, his niece,

Lydia Booth, prevailed upon him to invest in women's education instead. Perhaps as a tribute to his niece, who died prematurely, Vassar decided to fulfill her wish by opening Vassar College in 1865.

Through the philanthropic efforts of Sophia Smith, Smith College was created in 1875. It was founded out of a determination by women's colleges to be as strong as the best men's colleges. The board of trustees was comprised of men who demanded that admissions standards should be as strong as the best male institutions in the country (Jencks & Riesman, 1969). Similarly, Wellesley College was founded in order to provide a liberal arts education for women. The same high standards were mandated as a part of its institutional mission.

In 1880, Cory Thomas established Bryn Mawr College, convinced that women would be considered equal if they matriculated through a curriculum comparable to that of Harvard University (Schneider, 1971). College president Thomas encouraged Bryn Mawr women to eradicate centuries of prejudice against women and establish that they were equal by the weight of their accomplishments. According to Schneider (1971), failure to realize this would mean living as "pathological invalids" (Schneider, p. 83).

Early educators, men and women alike, worked untiringly to ensure that women were permitted to share an intellectual place beside men in colleges and universities. Women's rights advocates began to question, "What are they going to do with an education after they get it?" (Clifford, 1982, p. 67).

Women moved into the higher educational environment to enter the teaching profession (Myrdal & Klein, 1968). Beginning with the middle

of the 19th century, the public school system grew rapidly throughout the country, producing a demand for administrators, teachers, and for educated women who could satisfy this demand. Prior to this time, women had participated only at the most elementary levels in the private dame schools. The turn of the century saw women become the majority of teachers in both primary and secondary schools (Pollard, 1977). These achievements, particularly women's dominance of secondary teaching, distinguished American culture from others where women possessed no such access.

With the advent of the 1900s, women began to teach at higher levels, although college training was not always required. A degree meant better job opportunities. Faced with increasing demands for teachers, women were hired because they could afford to teach for one-half or less the salary that men would ask (Komarovsky, 1953, 1985).

Because it was considered a natural extension of the mothering role, teaching was seen as an appropriate occupation for women. In 1880, 57% of the teachers in the United States were women; by 1918 that figure had grown to 84%. In fact, there existed a higher percentage of women faculty members in postsecondary education in 1870 than in 1970 (Cless, 1976). Many women were choosing teaching, a calling which promised economic independence and social respect. Then, teaching school became considered as women's work (Clifford, 1982).

Virtually every important women's issues leader of the 19th century and many of the 20th--from Lucretia Mott, Lucy Stone, Susan B. Anthony, the Grimke Sisters, Frances Willard, Jane Swisshelm, Carrie Chapman Catt, and Jeanette Rankin to Shirley Chisholm and Geraldine Ferraro--"first exercised personal authority from the teacher's platform" (Faragher &

Howe, 1988, p. 87). Because women educators were new entrants into the field of education, it necessarily followed that the number of women in educational administration would be slim. It was widely believed in the early 20th century that as barriers for women in higher education came down, they would enter high ranks and more liberal occupations and professions (Weis, 1985). Instead, gender segregation in the workplace was reproduced in academic occupations.

In 1891, Radcliffe College was authorized to grant the traditional academic degrees bearing the seal of Harvard and the signature of its president. Harvard also permitted Radcliffe students to enroll in certain graduate-level courses of the university. This ascribed additional status to the cause of women while allowing them to pursue work that would eventually lead to the doctorate (Rudolph, 1962).

Not unexpectedly, in the beginning women's colleges met with considerable societal scorn. Bass (1970) quoted a contemporary New York Times editorial:

What do you think of the idea of a women's college? And why not? After allopathic, homeopathic, and patent pill colleges, universities, and all that sort of thing, why not let the girls have one? (Bass, p. 288)

The Movement had begun; Harvard, Brown, and Columbia were to found parallel women's college in 1891 and 1893, respectively (Oltman, 1971). Unfortunately, even with the women's educational successes, the notion that they should make use of this newly acquired education in a manner similar to their male counterparts remained socially unacceptable. Needless to say, women were virtually nonexistent in positions of administration.

In 1900 women constituted 30% of the student body in higher education as they attended a diversity of institutions (Perun, 1982). While many of the institutions were liberal arts colleges, many of them affiliated with Protestant denominations or Catholic religious orders, post-Civil War schools for Southern black youth, normal schools, public and private research universities (Chamberlain, 1988).

A second generation of prestigious women's colleges was found in the 1920s. Thought to be as competitive as earlier colleges, Schneider (1971) reported that these schools were designed to reflect women's unique experience in society. They stressed areas such as the performing arts, which were continually shunned by the male academy, and emphasized pedagogy rather than research. Such programs seemed to assist women in coping with their traditional lives (Schneider, 1971). These experimental schools made a profound contribution in higher education, introducing their curriculum as an alternative for all, not merely a panacea for women. However, by emphasizing women and their relationship to a particular mode of studies, these schools may have become even less acceptable to the male world (Schneider, 1971).

As the result of systematic research, the Carnegie Commission (1973) determined that the situation for women employed at colleges and universities deteriorated since the 1930s. The impact of the women's suffrage movement had waned. Out of the Great Depression and its emphasis upon the employment of men evolved the "men's fields of science, engineering and business administration" (Carnegie Commission, 1973, p. 3).

Women's participation in higher education administration was also affected by the rise in birthrate after World War II. More women were forced to stay at home because domestic help became harder to obtain and more costly. Subsequently, the academic profession attracted more men and began to afford better pay (Carnegie 1973).

Unfortunately, whether the school was progressive or traditional, after World War II social reform seemed to have dissipated. Women, regardless of the institution they attended, were now more concerned with finding an appropriate mate and catering to the changing needs of the business and professional husband. Caroline Bird (1972) described the new curriculum as an adjustment of the new masculinism. Instead of serving men by performing the standard domestic duties, women were now obliged to respond to the changing needs of business or politics.

Throughout the 1950s and 1960s, colleges which had been created for the express purpose of educating women began to actively recruit young men (Schneider, 1971). As these men became established within these colleges, they sought to raise their own prestige through participation in research. Next, they campaigned for enhanced procedures to increase male admission. Schneider (1971) wrote that during this period, college fell prey to a masculine ideology:

Even Bryn Mawr has capitulated utterly to society's regressive view of women and is actually producing intellectual decorations, women of sensitivity, who are rising to the challenge of managing career and family. (Schneider, p. 434)

Schneider (1971) reported how some lay blame with Bryn Mawr's President Thomas for attempting to structure a masculine curriculum at a feminine school without having examined assumptions implicit in that

curriculum. Namely, the elitism she advocated was perceived irrelevant to the woman's purpose.

Conversely, Jencks and Riesman (1969) maintained that President Thomas could have done no more, that she worked untiringly to lay the ground work whereby the credibility of masculine oppression was challenged. Her curriculum concept revealed that women were intellectually equal and could do the work of men. Research showed that she categorically proved that the "old system was unjust in assigning women to socially contrived, not biologically ordained, roles" (Schneider, p. 432).

Emergence of Coeducation

Because women's colleges no longer catered to the education of women, their *raison d'être* was forfeited. Accordingly, finding no advantage to a woman's college, young females sought alternative coeducational institutions (Littleton, 1975). Never before had the survival of all-women's colleges been in "such peril of extinction" (Littleton, p. 24). The number of women's colleges diminished from 248 in 1968 to 150 in 1970 (Tompkins, 1972).

Several women's colleges abandoned their mission statements, opting for a coeducational philosophy as a means to maintain student enrollments (Jensen, 1974). After much discussion, Vassar and Yale considered togetherness, later merged, and became Yale. Although Wellesley decided against coeducation, Jacobson (1967) reflected on its experimental plan of cross registration with Massachusetts Institute of Technology (M.I.T.).

The concept of women's institutions as a distinct species in the educational arena was now an endangered one. With many women's institutions being forced into an irreversible decision of coeducation, homogeneity within the academy was diminished. Even the control of women's institutions of higher education was becoming a male preserve. Masculine dominance not only permeated the administration but also engulfed the faculty as well. The 1950s and 1960s found universities and colleges busily expunging themselves of female control. Similar trends were discernible throughout the women's colleges. This situation prevailed through the 1950s and well into the 1960s. Then, the social movements of the 1960s rekindled within women their own sense of inequality. While Vassar could boast 35 women full professors in 1958, the number dwindled to 16 by 1970 (Sandler, 1971). In 1972, Cole recognized a swing back and a reawakening of the importance of women's educational institutions. This was, however, "too late to undo the mischief that had already taken place, but in time to prevent the total disappearance of the women's college" (Cole, p. 20). It was more than a coincidence that the new women's movement received its impetus on the coeducational campus, especially where discrimination was pronounced. Because sexual discrimination was not so blatant at women's colleges, they were not so responsive to the sexual renaissance (Bird, 1972).

The rising number of women at all levels of the academy created a necessary, but by no means sufficient, condition for realizing an egalitarian vision of coeducation's early advocates. Only changes within higher education itself could do that. A century ago, women were grafted into an institution built for men in a society dominated by men. Coeducation gave

women the opportunity to be more like their brothers. This was a laudable goal in a society that had long reserved its richest prizes for males, but it was limiting goal as well; it ignored the concerns, insights, and the aspirations born of women's differing experiences (Woody, 1966).

During the past decade the study of women in history, anthropology, philosophy, women's issues, and literary criticism has revealed a male-centered focus of traditional knowledge. In the process, feminization has today taken on a new meaning. Thoughtful scholars are showing how any study of women and gender not only enriches our knowledge but also transforms how we think about knowledge itself and the society that nurtures it. The ability of coeducation to live up to the expectations of its early advocates turns ultimately, therefore, not only on women's reaching statistical parity within academe but also on the willingness of the academy to foster this rethinking and to meet a challenge to transform the institution at every level (Howe, 1984).

In retrospect, the late 19th and early 20th centuries created sex-segregated departments and sex-specific professions. In 1910, 6% of physicians and 2% of dentists were women. Comparatively, women earned 23% of medical and 13% of dentistry degrees in 1980. However, 75% of those who prepared to educate were women (Faragher & Howe, 1988). Correspondingly, "sex-discrimination exists among and within the educational institutions that prepare, or fail to prepare, women for the world of work" (Faragher & Howe, p. 168).

History reflects that the post-World War II period was a setback to the advancement of women in academia. Faculty positions at all levels and

those in administration found women losing many of the gains which they had accomplished in preceding decades.

Whatever had been the case in earlier decades, by 1969 open expression of prejudice against women or doubts about their intellectual abilities and commitments were rare and unpopular on most campuses. These attitudes toward women on campus reflected and, perhaps, led to changes in the societal attitudes toward women (Carnegie, 1980).

During the rapid enrollment growth of the 1960s, losses of women faculty at 4-year colleges and universities decreased at almost every level. These losses were not evidenced at assistant professor and instructor levels (Carnegie, 1980).

While the 1960s were years for catching up, the 1970s marked a period during which women began rapid, progressive studies toward upward mobility. With increased emphasis on childrearing and childrearing during this postwar era, fewer woman prepared for entry into the academic labor market.

The early 1970s ushered in a reversed trend as a result of such significant movements as affirmative action, the women's movement, and forces which encouraged women to seek the Ph.D. degree. A familiar pattern reflected relatively small percentages of women in universities, slightly more in other 4-year institutions, and the largest proportions in 2-year colleges.

Women's access to most occupations had been restricted until the early 1970s. A large proportion of women in business, academia, and science have entered those areas since that time. However, today certain conditions exist which make this issue a difficult one, namely, the higher the

hierarchical position, the lower the percentage of women in it. Further, the higher the position, the greater the salary discrepancy between men and women (Pearson, Shavlik, & Touchton, 1989).

These authors attributed the small numbers of women in top executive ranks to the tendency of positions to require women to be like those already top executives and to follow the competitive male model. Prior to the 1970s, women rarely held positions of influence in higher education administration, except for women's colleges. With only a quarter of the administrative slots in coed institutions held by women, selected positions were considered more feminine than otherwise. These included dean of women, director of library services, director of food services, and dean of home economics or nursing (Chamberlain, 1988). Women less commonly held positions as registrar, director of guidance-related programs, director of student-related activities, and/or director of alumni affairs. However, 1970 ushered in a time when 75% of the women administrators at ivy league universities worked in student services.

With the continuation of programs initiated during the 1980s and which continue throughout the 1990s, barriers and inhibitors may be identified and overcome. It is the aim of this brief overview of the historical evolution of women in higher education prior to the 1970s to provide perspective and background for the work herein presented. Educational opportunities accessible to women in the past have been limited by the narrow definition of their social role, the restricted career opportunities available, limited resources, and legislation to encourage same.

Federal Policies and Women in Higher Education

According to the Carnegie Council (1975), the story of extensive federal involvement in the enforcement of affirmative action policies in higher education began in 1970. However, efforts toward equitable treatment of women had begun on diverse campuses several years before. In effect, the 1960s marked the inception of major civil rights legislation. Much of this legislation directed public awareness to sex discrimination, sexist policies, and practices that had previously gone unchallenged (Acquila, 1981).

As predominantly white universities and colleges opened their doors to increasing numbers of minority students, complaints were evidenced regarding the absence of minority faculty or ethnic studies. Similarly, there was growing evidence of organized groups of women who focused upon the status of women and who advocated the modification of policies which discriminated against women.

According to Caplow and McGee (1975), the historical record of many institutions of higher education in employing, promoting, and paying women and members of minority groups had been grossly inadequate in meeting the test of equality of opportunity. Consequently, women's rights advocates championed their cause to ensure that the elimination of sex discrimination in education would head up the national agenda in the 1970s.

In an exhaustive work for the Drake Law Review, Landau and Dunahoo (1971) studied federal laws as remedies for sex discrimination in employment. One such law, the Equal Pay Act of 1963, amended the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. It stated that women and men performing

work in the same establishment under similar conditions must receive the same pay if their jobs require equal skill, effort, and responsibility. The term "equal" did not mean "identical," however, that jobs which are compared must be "substantially similar" (Landau & Dunahoo, p. 417).

Strickler (1979) summarized basic prohibitions of this act as follows: Discrimination in wages or rates of pay between employees doing equal work on jobs, the performance of which requires equal skill, effort and responsibility, and which are performed under similar working conditions, because of sex wage differentials based on systems of seniority, merit, quantity or quality of production, or on any factor other than sex are not prohibited. (p. 108)

Rosenthal and Yancey (1985) cautioned that the liability of this act extends to any employer covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act or any labor organization causing or attempting to cause violations of the act.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 covered all employees at all private and public institutions at all levels, regardless of whether or not the institution received federal funds. The Wage and Hour Division of the Employment Standards Administration of the Department of Labor enforced the Act. The formal procedure for filing a grievance requires that the complainant need only to write or telephone the Department of Labor. The complainant's identity remains confidential unless the case goes to court (Landau & Dunahoo, 1971).

Title Seven of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

When enacted, the landmark Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 forbade discrimination in employment on the grounds of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. It was the first comprehensive federal law to prohibit sex discrimination in the admission and treatment of students by

educational institutions which receive federal financial assistance (Tinsley, Reuben, & Crothers, 1975).

Title VII is administered by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), which receives and investigates charges of discrimination. These charges must be filed within 180 days after the alleged act of discrimination. The charged party will receive a copy of the charges within 10 days of filing. Charges are not made public by the Commission unless court proceedings ultimately require that records be public (Tinsley, Reuben, & Crothers, 1975).

Once charges have been received and EEOC begins investigation, the Commission determines whether or not there is probable cause to believe that discrimination exists. If so, the Commission would attempt conciliation which, if it fails, the EEOC has the power to bring a civil action in Federal District Court. If conciliation is not effective, EEOC or the Attorney General can bring civil suit against the employer, labor union, or employment agency. According to Tinsley, Reuben, and Crothers (1975) the court can order any or all of the following:

enjoin the respondent from engaging in such unlawful behavior, order affirmative action as may be appropriate and other equitable relief, order reinstatement or hiring of employees with or without back pay, and/or award back pay (for up to two years prior to filing a charge). (p. 14)

Interim earnings are subtracted from back pay awards.

Under Title VII, it is unlawful to discriminate in recruitment, hiring, firing, layoff, recall, wages, terms, conditions or privileges of employment, classifying, assigning or promoting employees; extending or assigning use of facilities; training, retraining, or apprenticeships; opportunities for promotion; sick leave time and pay; vacation time and pay, overtime work

and pay; medical, hospital, life, and accident insurance coverage; optional and compulsory retirement age privileges; receiving applications or classifying or referring for employment; and printing, publishing, or circulating advertisements relating to employment that express specifications or preferences based on sex (DeCrow, 1975).

Selected features of Title VII are of particular interest to academic women. First, it permits complaints which charge a pattern of discrimination. It grants a violated party the right to sue in court (or bring suit on her own behalf) if the protection guaranteed by EEOC is not satisfactory. Third, EEOC Guidelines on employee selection apply to academic employees. These prohibit any job qualifications or selection standards which "disproportionately screen out groups protected by Title VII unless they are related to job performance and unless no alternate nondiscriminatory standards can be developed to meet requirements shown to be justified by business necessity" (Tinsley, Reuben & Crothers, 1975, p. 4). Selection procedures included all tests or instruments, personal histories, biographical information, background requirements, interviews, specific educational, or work experience requirements which result in a significantly differential rate of rejection for groups protected by Title VII (DeCrow, 1975).

According to researchers (Tinsley et al., 1975), one potential target for academic women is the widespread requirement of the Ph.D. degree, inasmuch as instituting this requirement restricts the applicant pool of qualified women applicants. Furthermore, inflated educational requirements must be eliminated if they are not needed for the specific job in question. Where higher education is required for advancement,

institutions should make an affirmative effort to provide support for a woman's completion of her graduate work (DeCrow, 1975).

Equal Employment Opportunity Act

In 1972, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare outlined federal laws and regulations concerning sex discrimination in educational institutions. The Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 extended the coverage of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to academic employment. It forbade discrimination as outlined in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. However, it extended protection to include employees of state and local governments and educational institutions, both private and public, with at least 15 employees. This act governs all employees, employment agencies, and all labor organizations, collective bargaining unions, and institutions regardless of whether they receive any federal funds. According to a report by the Carnegie Council (1975), this legislation is administered by a five-member bipartisan Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), appointed by the President.

Federal Health Manpower Legislation

Prohibiting federal financial support to any medical health or nursing training program is the focus of the Comprehensive Health Manpower Training Act of 1971 and the Nurse Training Act of 1971. Financial support under either Title VII or Title VIII may be provided where the institution providing training submits satisfactory assurances that it will not discriminate in admission of training program participants and in relation to employees. The Office of Civil Rights (OCR) remains responsible for enforcement (Carnegie, 1975).

The Carnegie Council (1975) reported a number of cases of alleged discrimination in academic employment in medical schools. University health science centers, major recipients of federal funds under Title VII and Title VIII, are subject to the requirements of federal health manpower legislation. These include programs for schools of medicine, osteopathy, dentistry, veterinary medicine, pharmacy, podiatry, allied health professionals, nursing schools, and any services provided under the Public Health Service Act.

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC)
Sex Discrimination Guidelines

The EEOC Sex Discrimination Guidelines of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 regulated employee testing and other selection procedures. According to these guidelines, no new selection standard may be imposed upon any individual or class of individuals who have been discriminated against in the past and who, except for prior discrimination, would have been granted employment opportunity under less stringent standards when they began to hire women (such as requiring the Ph.D. degree and/or publications) if men were hired under a less rigorous standard in the past.

Proposed regulations regarding pregnancy and maternity leave violate these guidelines, which proposed that pregnancy and any absence from work as a result thereof must be treated as a temporary disability (Tinsley, Reuben, & Crothers, 1975). Regulations prior to the Guidelines stipulated that a pregnant woman must notify the employer 120 days prior to the expected birth and that a pregnant women who takes a leave must remain on leave until the beginning of the first full academic term

following her physician's certification that she is able to work. Hence, pregnancy was treated differently than other temporary disabilities.

According to Tinsley, Reuben, and Crothers (1975), employees who

break a leg or have an operation should also be certified by a physician as able to work or unable to return to work until a prescribed time, regardless of capacity and/or willingness to return. The imposition of these extra burdens on the pregnant woman and mother is clearly discriminatory. (p. 11)

Women's Educational Equity Act

The filing of a complaint against the entire academic community, lodged by a small, relatively unknown women's civil rights group, signaled the beginning of federal involvement in the enforcement of affirmative action policies in higher education. With the support of charges of sex discrimination in education, women's rights advocates no longer had to rely solely on personal experience to substantiate their positions. The late 1960s found education researchers gathering empirical evidence to substantiate on-going claims of sexual discrimination (Acquila, 1981).

During the early 1970s, the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL) complained that higher education established a pattern of sex discrimination, documenting its complaint with approximately 80 pages. Prior to this time, there had been a limited amount of federal involvement in relation to employment opportunities for minority groups.

The efforts of a few dedicated women in the Women's Equity Action League spearheaded the passage of the Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA). Although supported by such persons as Arlene Horowitz, Bernice Sandler, United States Representative Patsy Mink, and Senator Walter Mondale, Congress viewed WEEA as an "inoffensive, nonthreatening piece of legislation and did not consider it as a force in eliminating sex bias in

education" (Acquila, 1981, p. 8). However, it was this \$6 million program which played a vital supportive role for its more controversial legislation, Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972.

Signed into law on August 21, 1974, this Act authorized the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) to make grants for innovative approaches to women's educational programs. It also established a council on Women's Educational Programs within the Office of Education. The council advised the Secretary of HEW regarding state and local education agencies, organizations, public and nonprofit private agencies, institutions for research, demonstration and pilot programs, the preparation and administration of regulation, and programs of grants and contracts with institutions of higher education (Feinberg, 1982).

It was the Women's Educational Equity Act which provided an opportunity for women concerned about sexism to develop strategies for change. It was through this act that women lobbied effectively for educational issues crucial to debate in favor of Title IX (Acquila, 1981).

Executive Order 11246

Largely unknown to academia, Executive Order 11246 had been enforced in other employment settings prior to 1970. It provided the underpinning for the Women's Equity Action League's demand for federal action to eliminate sex discrimination in educational institutions. Issued by President Johnson in 1965, this order forbade discrimination in employment by all federal contractors on the basis of race, color, religion, or national origin. Effective October 1968, Executive Order 11246 was amended by Executive Order 11375 which forbade discrimination based on sex (Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, 1972a).

Executive Order 11246 stipulated that agencies, groups, companies, or the like which receive government contracts or subcontracts in excess of \$10,000 must agree not to discriminate on the grounds aforementioned. This order governs virtually all institutions of higher learning. Under Order 11246, institutions were mandated to take affirmative action measures to ensure that applicants and employees are treated without regard to their race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. According to investigators, "treated" referred to actions of employment, upgrading, demotion, transfer, recruitment or recruitment advisement, layoff, termination, rates of pay, compensation, selection, training, and apprenticeship. This Executive Order applied to all employment by a contractor, not merely those in receipt of federal funds (Tinsley, Reuben, & Crothers, 1975, p. 20).

Tinsley, Reuben, and Crothers (1975) cautioned that it is important to understand that the Executive Order is not law but a set of terms in a contractual agreement between the federal government and its contractors. On this basis, federal contracts may be cancelled, terminated, or suspended.

Despite Executive Orders which prohibit discrimination in federal projects, researchers have focused attention on the extent to which women maintain a comparatively lower status in administration (Astin, 1969; Bayer & Astin, 1968; LaSorte, 1972). Institutions now under compliance review are expected not only to correct personnel practices which fail to treat men and women equally but also to increase the numbers of women employed particularly at the higher levels, thus shifting the status of academic women toward equality with that of males.

Title Nine of the Education Amendments

Enacted in 1972 by President Richard Nixon, Acquila (1981) suggested that Title IX of the Education Amendments became the "cornerstone of the on-going effort to eliminate sexism in areas of academic life" (Acquila, p. 7). The Higher Education Act of 1972, as it is commonly called, prohibits sex discrimination in all federally assisted education programs, providing that "no person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving federal financial assistance" (Buck & Orleans, 1973).

Responsible for drafting regulations to implement Title IX, Acquila (1981) reported that the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) faced increased interdepartmental controversy. This reportedly impeded the drafting of regulations and reduced its priority. Proposed regulations were issued by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) in 1974.

Acquila (1981) reported that a congressional review of Title IX regulations resulted in numerous sustained efforts to diminish their effect. This prompted women's advocacy groups to wage campaigns against a Congress which tried to change the original Title IX law by weakening it. President Ford signed the regulations in May, 1975 but only after some modification by the HEW Secretary.

Under the legislation, Congress had 45 days to pass a resolution disapproving provisions of Title IX. Congress did not pass such a resolution, and the regulations were finally approved (Carnegie, 1975). The regulations are extensive, setting standards for meeting federal equal

opportunity requirements relating to admissions, treatment of students, and employment.

Congressional opposition, coupled with extended delays in implementation of regulations, and the reluctance by the Office of Civil Rights to follow-up on reports of complaints appeared to reflect little progress toward the provision of educational equity for males and females.

The Office for Civil Rights took the position that it did not have the staff to deal with complaints of sex discrimination because court-ordered enforcement of race discrimination complaints was consuming all of its staff time. Eventually, court action led to mandatory Office of Civil Rights action on Title IX discrimination complaints. This ushered in a period of "remarkable change in the educational system, rapid development in athletic programs for girls, coeducational physical education classes, and concerted efforts to eliminate sex bias in the curriculum" (Acquila, p. 49).

Higher Education Guidelines of 1972

The Higher Education Guidelines of 1972 were issued by the Office for Civil Rights to colleges and universities, delineating their responsibilities to develop affirmative action programs for women. These regulations resulted from a need for administrative procedure to set up, organize, and monitor such programs (Carnegie, 1975).

The Higher Education Guidelines were first distributed at an annual meeting of the American Council on Education (Tinsley, Reuben, & Crothers, 1975). Administrators returned from that meeting anxious to prepare written affirmative action programs for women on their campuses. Guidelines stipulated that goals should be set so as to overcome universities' deficiencies in the utilization of women and minorities within

a reasonable time (Carnegie, 1975). The Higher Education Guidelines of 1972 anticipated that deficiencies as they related to minorities and women would be short-lived, being overcome within a 5-year period. This would, then, presumably reduce the need for federal control, although the Carnegie Council (1975) called the 1977 target date "quite unrealistic" (Carnegie, p. 3).

Revised Order Number 4

In December 1971, the Secretary of Labor signed the Revised Order Number 4, which required nonconstruction contractor employers of more than 50 to have on file a written affirmative action program. This program would determine whether minorities and women were underutilized in their work force, detailing projects and specific goals and time tables for remedying these underutilizations (Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, 1972b).

However, under Revised Order 4, the Higher Education Guidelines were obligated to address such issues as, but not limited to, hiring, antinepotism, placement, job classification, back pay, leave policies, employment practices relating to pregnancy and childbirth, fringe benefits, child care, and grievance procedures. It was evident that provisions of these guidelines were sensitive to problems of sex discrimination in higher education and intelligent about remedies for them. Buck and Orleans (1973) maintained that they obviously profited from the input of women's groups.

Revised Order Number 4 required that goals and timetables be set for each department where underutilization was found among women and minorities. Requirements mandated an analysis of data regarding utilization and availability pools of each department for each ethnic group by sex. Furthermore, retrospective data was to be maintained and provided

regarding recruitment, selection, training, merit increases, salary analyses, and the like (Carnegie, 1975).

Revised Order Number 14

Revised Order Number 14, as published in the February 14, 1974, Federal Register, amended Revised Order No. 4. In July 1974, the Secretary of Labor issued Revised Order 14, establishing standardized compliance review procedures used by federal officers in contract and academic compliance review. Nonadherence to these procedures was useful in initiating lawsuits against compliance agencies. Among other things, Revised Order Number 14 provided that neither women nor minority candidates for employment should be required to possess higher qualifications than those of the least qualified incumbent (Carnegie, 1975). The Carnegie Council (1975) deemed such a provision as "especially inappropriate for academic employment" (Carnegie p. 124) because it links the qualifications for hiring or promotion to those of the weakest incumbent.

National Labor Relations Act

In private higher education, the National Labor Relations Act made provisions by which a complaint of discrimination in employment may be filed on the basis of race, sex, or national origin. The National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) has jurisdiction over enforcement of the Act.

In its general description, Carnegie (1975) reported that NLRB jurisdiction is limited to private employers. The NLRB regulations cover private nonprofit universities and colleges if they gross at least \$1 million in annual revenue from sources (excluding contributions not available for operating expenses because of limitations imposed by the grantor). At the

time of publishing of the Carnegie (1975) report, research indicated that referrals of cases to the National Labor Relations Board had been minimal. In fact, only one decision had been rendered in a case involving alleged discrimination in private higher education.

The Equal Rights Amendment

When finally ratified, the Equal Rights Amendment to the United States Constitution will require that state-supported schools at all levels will eliminate all laws, regulations, or official practices which exclude women or limit their numbers. To date, this amendment has been ratified by 29 states; 38 are needed for adoption.

The Equal Rights Amendment will require admission to institutions as student and/or employee status on the basis of ability or other relevant characteristics and not on the basis of sex (Carnegie Council, 1975). Researchers (Tinsley, Reuben, & Crothers, 1975) reported that scholarship funds will be treated similarly. Furthermore, state schools and colleges will become coeducational, while employment and promotion practices in state schools and colleges will necessarily become free from sex discrimination. In making affirmative action work in higher education, the Carnegie Council (1975) concluded that ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment would "require extensive legislative activity by Congress and state legislatures to eliminate conflicts between the amendment and existing legislation" (Carnegie, p. 110).

National Strategies for the Advancement of Women in Higher Education Administration

Despite efforts by private foundations to support projects to improve opportunities for the advancement of women in higher education

administration, for the vast majority of women the long climb up the administrative ladder has not been an easy one. For more than 20 years, several major foundations have focused resources on addressing the problem of underrepresentation of women in higher education administration. Bernstein (1984) reported that the Carnegie and Ford Foundations, in cooperation with smaller foundations, provided more than \$3 million to support projects designed to promote administrative advancement of women. In "Foundation Support for Administrative Advancement: A Mixed Record," Bernstein (1984) characterized this as a conservative estimate because a \$1 million figure for the Association of American Colleges' Project on the Status of Women is not included. As a result of support by these and other national foundations and agencies, significant efforts were initiated which fostered advancement of women in positions of administration. Selected reports and programs are highlighted herein which resulted from direct support by these foundations.

The Carnegie Foundation

From its inception, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education emphasized the need to eliminate all barriers to equality of opportunity in higher education (Carnegie Commission, 1973). Subsequent to recommending policy designed to increase equality of opportunity for minority groups in higher education, it became apparent to the Carnegie Commission that these policies did not satisfy the special concerns of women (Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973). Therefore, subsequent to designing means to improve equal opportunities for minority groups in higher education, the Carnegie Commission (1973) intensified pressure for equal opportunity for women in higher education. The

Carnegie Commission on Higher Education began to prepare what would result in several reports concerned with the equality of opportunity for participation of women in higher education.

In its report, "Opportunities for Women in Higher Education," the Carnegie Commission (1973) identified special problems as they related to education, traced these problems from the early acculturation of girls through school years, and then to higher education. This report reviewed faculty level and general institutional employment practices recommending that changes in attitudes and policies are necessary to afford women an opportunity to develop and utilize their mental capacities and abilities.

Women are rarely represented in top academic administrative positions and are practically nonexistent in the upper echelon. The Carnegie Commission reported that in 1971 virtually no 4-year coeducational institution was headed by a woman. Catholic women's colleges were an exception; however, only eight nonsectarian women's colleges hailed women presidents at the writing of that report.

Carnegie (1980) reported in Three Hundred Futures that only about one fourth of faculty members in institutions of higher education were women in 1975 and that they were heavily concentrated at the lower ranks. Nine percent of full professors were women, and, in both public and private universities, the percentage was even smaller (6%). The percentage of women who were assistant professors increased substantially during the 1970s while progress at the higher ranks has been slow. Carnegie (1980) attributed this in part to the fact that older women who were hired in the 1920s and 1930s were "retiring and dying" (Carnegie, p. 309).

Three Hundred Futures (Carnegie, 1980) documented the ratios for women who are year-round, full-time workers as considerably lower than those for all women with income. This suggested that, among all women with income, higher incomes by college graduates are partly the result of year-round, full-time employment (Carnegie 1980).

Finally, this report provided an interesting statistic: In 1960, one out of every female college student in the labor force were teachers. However, the age of technology or the 1970s ushered in a sharp decline in the demand for teachers, forcing a rising proportion of female college graduates to accept lower-paid jobs outside of their field.

In its commitment to "Making Affirmative Action Work in Higher Education," the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education (1975) completed an analysis of institutional and federal policies. The Council recommended that "if the institutions' commitment to affirmative action is to be fully carried out, the first requirement is that responsibility for implementation of affirmative action be clearly assigned" (Carnegie, p. 105). The Council assured the public that a most significant factor which ensures institutional commitment is a determination on the part of the university president to an affirmative action program. The Carnegie Council (1975) recognized that the chief executive officer may delegate responsibilities for implementing affirmative action policy to a special vice president, assistant to the president, or vice chancellor. However, the best solution would then vary from campus to campus because of differences in administrative relationships and in the personalities involved (Carnegie, 1975).

Whatever the official title assigned to the affirmative action coordinator, Carnegie (1975, p. 72) offered an example of responsibilities,

reflective of a Princeton University arrangement. The coordinator was responsible for oversight of, developing, implementing, monitoring, and reporting university equal opportunity and affirmative action programs; maintaining and updating university-wide basic data files; and coordinating preparation of utilization, salary analysis, and personnel mobility systems. It was this official's responsibility to receive and assess periodic departmental and office reports on recruitment, hiring, mobility, attrition, and overall affirmative action progress from the dean of the faculty and the director of personnel services. The coordinator would prepare and present reports to the equal opportunity council and committees, serving as liaison between the university administration and interest groups in the university. Other duties included preparing equal opportunity and affirmative action annual reports, overseeing development of policy statements internal, and external communication techniques, as well as keeping relevant administrative offices of the university informed of developments in equal opportunity and affirmative action areas.

The Carnegie Council (1980) maintained that if the position of majority women college faculty would correspond to the percentage of majority women in the work force, then the noted 38% women's representation among Ph.D. recipients must necessarily increase by a very large amount. This suggestion was made in the Council's first recommendation for affirmative action. Namely, "all institutions of higher education with doctoral and professional programs should include a 'supply plan' designed to provide maximum opportunities for women and minorities to participate on an equal basis in graduate and professional education" (Carnegie Council, p. 67). The Council further recommended

that federal agencies improve their programs for collecting and promptly publishing data on the sexual, racial, and selected ethnic characteristics of degree recipients and academic employees (Carnegie, 1980).

A recommendation of the Carnegie Council (1980) that institutions of higher education provide for strict observance of nondiscriminatory procedures in salary structures focused on recruitment, selection, and promotions of faculty women. Where formal salary structures exist in public institutions, faculty women received compensation commensurate with rank and step. However, the Council cautioned against an institution's failure to grant merit increases or promotions based upon sexual or racial discrimination as related to any disparity in salaries.

Carnegie (1980) further recommended, as an important aspect of affirmative action policies, to encourage opportunities for women and minorities to rise in the administrative hierarchy. In academia, deans and top administrators are typically selected from among persons who have served as department chairpersons and/or directors, for example. It is important, therefore, that women and minorities be provided opportunities to serve in positions as department chairpersons or directors (Carnegie, 1980).

Nepotism

Perhaps no university regulation has subjected intellectual womankind to such abuse as the ill-considered nepotism provisions. (Dunkle & Simmons, 1972, p. 9)

A major focus of early demands of women's groups was the modification of antinepotism rules (Gerson, 1985). These policies in higher education had influenced decisions to deny married women employment in

faculty positions. This was especially true when women's spouses were in the same academic field.

Simon, Clark, and Tifft (1966) traced the origins of the antinepotism impetus to the "Progressive Movement," during which time public institutions were fearful that they would become receptacles for patronage slots. Research (Churgin, 1978) identified a motivating force behind antinepotism regulations to discourage collective family involvement at any selected institution. These regulations had a devastating effect on married women who followed their husbands to new professional employment sites. The Carnegie Commission (1973) determined that these moves arbitrarily precluded women from pursuing their careers. Thus, an academic woman married to a faculty member and unfamiliar with new surroundings was likely to be more affected by this than women in any profession of heavy specialization.

In a descriptive account, Churgin (1978) reported that sexist overtones were manifested as regulations evolved. Howard University implemented a policy whereby father and son were employed; however, husband and wife were not allowed to hold full-time tenured posts. Nepotism regulations led to absurd consequences. One such documented account (Churgin, 1978) involved a renowned physicist. A Nobel Prize winner, Dr. Maria Gaeppert, was denied employment at her husband's school because he was also a physicist.

Churgin (1978) recorded one rationale of antinepotism: It prevents stagnation of ideas from developing since graduate students usually reflect the attitudes of their mentors. In a profile of wives of academicians, Martin (1973) concluded that while the purpose of antinepotism regulations may be

commendable, this purpose has experienced rare effectiveness, save in the exclusion of women in practicing their professions.

American Council on Education

Having a board comprised of influential women as members, as well as a staff of men and women committed to women's issues, the American Council on Education (ACE) has shown evidence of a commitment to address women's concerns. In 1920, this organization established a standing committee, although short-lived, for purposes of training women of service to the public. A commission on the education of women soon followed. Functioning between the years 1953-1961, it faced critical postwar issues for women (Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984).

The American Council on Education was the first higher education association to hold a national conference which focused on women's issues. Subsequent to this landmark event in 1973, the council established an Office of Women in Higher Education (OWHE) under the direction of Emily Taylor and, later, Donna Shavlik (Chamberlain, 1988). A Commission on Women in Higher Education was also established to advise this office (Tinsley et al., 1984). For the next 2 years, members of each of these groups maintained exhaustive documentation regarding the relative totals of women in top levels of educational administration in all sectors of higher education. Tinsley, Secor, and Kaplan (1984) reported that women who accounted for nearly half of the students enrolled in colleges and universities between the years 1973-1975 were experiencing severe inequity and a tremendous loss of talent. Where women comprised 25% of the faculty, only 5% of the presidents were women (Touchton & Shavlik, 1984).

Researchers cautioned that the paucity in the number of women in administration and/or positions of power "did not mean that there were no women leaders in higher education, nor did it mean that higher education had failed to develop and use women leaders" (Tinsley et al., 1984, p. 48). Rather, women were not being recognized as significant players on campuses and within communities at large. Women themselves discovered that, subsequent to stimulating their own recollections, they could identify colleagues and other resources who lacked visibility (Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984).

National Identification Program for the Advancement
of Women in Higher Education Administration

Comprised of colleges and universities, state and national education associations, specialized institutions, and groups concerned with higher education, the American Council on Education (ACE) coordinated a response to the issue of women in higher education leadership. As a part of this response, the National Identification Program for the Advancement of Women in Higher Education Administration (ACE/NIP) was created in 1977. Funded by the Carnegie Corporation and by institutional support from ACE, the purpose of ACE/NIP was to expand the pool of persons qualified for leadership roles in our nation's colleges and universities so that all women of all colors can have opportunities for advancement and so that higher education can benefit from the riches of their participation (Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984, p. 48).

The ACE/NIP provided a means by which talented women were identified. Their visibility increased, and a network of men and women academicians was created to serve as sponsors. Unlike the Higher Education

Resource Service (HERS) network, which is concerned with women at all levels of administration, the Office of Women in Higher Education and the Commission on Women in Higher Education focused this program on increasing the number of women presidents, vice presidents, and deans.

The ACE/NIP sought to examine certain systemic barriers which impede the advancement of women, including a belief among the higher education constituency that many women are not qualified to assume major administrative responsibilities in colleges and universities. Thus, there exists no justification for recruitment and promotion. Other barriers were reflected in Kanter's concept (cited in Chamberlain, 1988) regarding the tendency of those in authority to hire and promote others similar to themselves, isolation of the dissimilar administrator, and a tendency of women administrators to compare themselves with ideal leadership.

In "Women in Higher Education," ACE/NIP identified variables that compound the problem of a diminished number of women in higher education administration. These included the absence of networking means which enable entry into leadership ranks, lack of awareness that the inclusion of women and minorities can greatly improve institutions, failure to realize women should be hired for their potential because leadership training occurs primarily on the job, and problems which women face that are the result of double discrimination (Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984).

These barriers were addressed through an articulation of the goals of the National Identification Program. By identifying talented women, the ACE/NIP worked to enhance their visibility as leaders; increase their opportunities for advancement; and create, sustain, and enrich networks of all women and men who expressed a commitment to women's leadership.

Efforts to identify, recommend, and sponsor women aided in the process to improve higher education by increasing the pool of potential exemplary leaders (Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984).

Specifically, the national identification program was created to work for the advancement of all women by targeting any barriers while developing programs and working with search committees and boards. The ACE/NIP constructed a series of interlocking networks that connected state-based programs with those at the national level. The ACE/NIP exists in each of the 50 states; each state has a coordinator who is a senior-level administrator and a state planning committee of 10 to 15 women administrators in higher education. Today, panelists or college and university presidents, trustees, association leaders, civic, and public officials, participate in ACE/NIP national forums and programs of educational concerns.

Five senior associates, distinguished women executives at or near the point of retirement, represent ACE and OWHE in state and national NIP activities. They travel, speaking and serving as mentors and role models across the country as they seek to extend the capacity of OWHE to facilitate institutional change. The ACE conceived the idea of holding national forums in the first year of NIP as a means of connecting senior-level women administrators with each other and with leaders of higher education. The NIP also uses occasions and meetings organized by the association to strengthen networking and to identify outstanding and potential women leaders.

The ACE Office of Women in Higher Education reported that of the 20 women who attended the first forum in 1977, 7 were appointed to

presidencies within a few years. Since that time, at least 600 women participated in national forums. Of these, Touchton and Shavlik (1984) reported that 200 have changed to positions of higher management responsibility and 29 have become college and university presidents.

Modern Language Association Commission

Beginning in December 1971, the Modern Language Association Commission on the Status of Women in the Profession published a series of pamphlets which addressed the professional concerns of academic women (Tinsley, Reuben, & Crothers, 1975). The first in its series entitled Academic Women, Sex Discrimination, and the Law was published in 1977 at a time when very little law governing women in cases of sex discrimination existed. A second, completed revised version appeared as a result of the passage of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 and the Higher Education Act of 1972. Between 1972 and 1974, changes in federal policies and regulations of "agencies which administer federal law necessitated publication of a completely revised edition" of the pamphlet in 1974 (Tinsley et al., 1975, p. 1).

In addition to publishing relevant documents, the Modern Language Association Commission on the Status of Women in the Profession provided academic women an overview of legal resources available to individuals and groups, thereby providing insight regarding patterns of discrimination in educational institutions. Subsequently, it was the hope of the editors that women would "more confidently embark upon the pursuit of equity" (Tinsley et al., 1975, p. 1). According to Tinsley, Reuben, and Crothers (1975), between the printing of the first and third editions of Academic Women, Sex Discrimination, and the Law the legal situation of

academic women who had experienced sex discrimination changed radically.

Ford Foundation

Women resource centers were developed to challenge the basic underpinnings of traditional scholarship as it affects an understanding of women. They made available current research, resource material, directories, and bibliographies on women's issues. In an effort to foster the employment of women in higher education administration, the Higher Education Resource Services (HERS) was established in several regions around America (Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984).

Under the leadership of the associate provost of Wesleyan University, HERS resulted from the work of a small group of senior-level women administrators in 1972. Each had been asked to nominate other women for academic positions as a result of federal affirmative action regulations. This concerns committee established project HERS as a central registry to receive requests and information regarding talented women (Chamberlain, 1988).

With support from the Ford Foundation, the first HERS office was located at Brown University. This office moved to Wellesley College later that same year and became HERS/New England. Three years later, HERS/Mid-Atlantic was established. Having its regional office at the University of Pennsylvania, HERS/Mid-Atlantic operated within the same framework represented by other HERS, however, developing programs relevant to its own consistency. According to Chamberlain (1988), HERS/Mid-Atlantic moved to the University of Denver and has since operated as HERS/Mid-America. The HERS/West was established at the University of Utah in 1979 and comprises seven western states. As a major function it maintains a

network of women administrators in higher education. Housed in the Women's Resource Center of the University of Utah, HERS/West currently conducts professional development programs and maintains a research component on the status of women and men in society (Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984).

Project on the Status and Education of Women

In its continuing effort to describe ways in which women faculty, administrators, and graduate students in higher education are treated differently from men, the Project on the Status and Education of Women investigated complaints of negative behaviors and attitudes toward women professionals and preprofessionals. Having received a grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE), the Project sought to assist institutions in efforts to create and adopt policies and programs to counteract imminent problems and to provided strategies for change.

According to Sandler (1986), the FIPSE report addressed such issues as stereotypes, collegiality, attractiveness, sexuality, sexual harassment, and devaluation. It confirmed the existence of subtle discriminatory attitudes and behaviors which affect the hiring and advancement of women professionals in higher education. Although these subtle attitudes exist, project researchers noted they are mostly unintentional and unnoticed by the majority of men and women involved (Sandler, 1986).

Women in Higher Education Administration

Among their earliest administrative duties, Mellow (1988) discovered women administrators to be midwives and godmothers of the first women's centers on college campuses. That role now extinct, leadership in

higher education in the United States is gradually changing. The period from 1975-1984 brought an increase in the number of women chief executive officers by 93% (Fobbs, 1988). Even with these numbers, over the last decade, fewer than 10% of presidential appointments made were women. Leadership image is one of the major problems facing women aspiring to move to the top level of their professions. This may be attributed, in part, because role models are few.

In its 1975-1976 administrative survey, the College and University Personnel Association reported data on annual salary levels, sex, and race differentials for five categories of college and university personnel: academic affairs, administrative affairs, external affairs, student services, and executive affairs. Men held most of the 52 administrative positions and held 96% of the chief executive positions. Women held 16% of all administrative positions, including minority women who held 2% of the positions. Women and minorities were best represented in student affairs and external affairs positions (Frances, Mensel, Withers, & Malott, 1977).

In college and university administration, women administrators do women's work, and they rarely serve as deans of business, engineering, or technology. This may be attributed, in part, to the fact that women administrators experience problems which include specific on-the-job factors. Differential award systems, discrimination in pay or promotion, and lack of support for professional growth are among factors which impede progress (Fobbs, 1988). The higher the rank, the fewer the women; the higher the prestige of administrative jobs, the fewer the women. Currently, there are 348 women college presidents, compared to 148 in 1975 and 296 in

1988; 26 are Black, 17 are Hispanic, 5 are Native Americans, as 2 Asians round out this total. Women presidents (125) usually head universities and colleges in five of the largest industrial states (University of Florida, 1993).

This is no new phenomenon; reports over two decades show that administrative women received inferior salaries to men with the same job title when employed by the same institution (Frances, Mensel, Withers, & Malott, 1977; Frances & Mensel, 1981, 1986). Women currently earn less. On the average men faculty earn \$59,180 annually, while women earn \$52,380 on the average within a year (University of Florida, 1993). Even today women are promoted more often in smaller steps, while men are promoted less often but make greater career leaps.

Barnes (1993) suggested that the college presidency can serve as the benchmark of women in administration. Because it is often faculty members who become administrators, Barnes (1993) reported statistical indicators for academic women. In 1991, the number of full-time female faculty members was heavily comprised of white women (143,049). Women who were Black (11,460), Hispanic (4,069), Asian (6,029), and Native American (638) reflected much smaller totals. The total number of white women having tenure (88.2%) outnumbered combined totals for minorities in that same category. Median salaries for full-time women faculty members were reported as follows: White, \$40,245; Asian, \$41,625; Black, \$38,712; Hispanic, \$38,513; and Native American, \$30,356.

Women in Edson's (1988) study shared a common resolve to succeed in leadership and expressed widespread opinions and hopes about female administrators in the field. While each supported the hiring of women for

administrative positions, much skepticism was expressed regarding how receptive the field of education is to female aspirants.

The number of women in administrative positions, including upper-level, increased steadily from 1975 to 1985, although women remained underrepresented in positions as chief executives, deans, and financial and planning officers (Kuyper, 1987). Salary differentials between men and women widened during the years 1975-1985; this can possibly be attributed to the high proportion of women entering administrative ranks, perhaps having less experience than their male counterparts (Frances & Mensel, 1986). Further, men were brought in from outside of the field at salaries higher than those being paid to women already on the job. Frances and Mensel (1981) found that women are more likely to hold senior-level administrative positions in lower-ranking and lower-paying institutions than men. Institutions which employed the largest proportion of men paid higher salaries than those which hired the largest proportion of women.

Although historically the number of men in administration has outnumbered women, the number of women is increasing. Yet, attitudes in general still presume that men exhibit superior competence in managerial roles. Alexander (1988) examined the perceptions of business and management students toward women's personal attributes for management as well as the extent to which sex-role stereotypes influence students' attitudes toward women in management. Research findings indicated that students held favorable attitudes toward women administrators and evidenced less observable masculine sex-typing of managerial roles. However, when students identified skills considered requisite to managerial success, they equated women with less competence in administration.

In an expression of optimism regarding trends in hiring women in education administration, women in Edson's (1988) study called this a "new day for female administrators," saying, the time is "ripe for women," and that the "best man for the job is a woman" (Edson, p. 116). On the other hand, when women in this study were asked about their male colleagues, most spoke positively about the encouragement and support they received. One woman remarked, "Men have pushed me all the way, so I have nothing but good things to say about them. I've had black men and white men helping me and that's a plus" (Edson, 1988, p. 145).

Women administrators have often been inspired by the work of male colleagues. One administrator commented,

When I started to think about going back to school, I realized that I had subconsciously been looking at all these incompetent male administrators whom I had worked for. And I thought to myself, 'heck, if they can do it, why can't I?' I certainly believe I can do a better job than they're doing. (Edson, p. 145)

Often men find it difficult to alter their perceptions about women administrators. Edson (1988) maintained that new barriers exist towards women seeking educational management positions, although hiring statistics in Edson's work failed to support this. However, a review of the 1985-1986 Administrative Compensation Survey (Frances & Mensel, 1986) provided little reason for optimism:

	Total#	#of women	% of women
Academic Affairs	11,336	3149	28
Administrative Affairs	10,969	2363	22
Student Services	9,857	3521	36
External Affairs	4,242	1640	39
Executive Affairs	1,681	153	9

The highest proportion of women (39%) was in external affairs positions; however, the largest number of women was in student services. The lowest proportion, executive affairs at 9%, represented an increase from 4% 1975-1976 and 6% in 1978-1979. Frances' and Mensel's (1986) study showed the number of women directors exceeded that of men in the areas of affirmative action/equal employment, news bureau, alumni affairs, information services, publications, and student health services (nurse administrator). The largest numbers of women directors were in the positions as (in descending order) financial aid, registrar, student health services (nurse administrator), library services, bookstore, student placement, and student affairs.

Recently, there has been a large increase in the number of women in midlevel higher education administration (Bogenschutz & Sagaria, 1988). However, the structure and nature of higher education organizations constrain traditional career advancement opportunities for them. Bogenschutz and Sagaria (1988) attributed this, in part, to few discernable career paths, the vague position hierarchy of status and prestige, and to the formal structure of the organization yielding few senior-level incumbents who remain in positions for several years. Furthermore, because of limited research, investigators could not determine whether the structural constraints of colleges and universities adversely affect midlevel administrators.

Not all women experience positive and supportive encounters with their male administrators. A group of women in Edson's (1988) study viewed male administrators as having insufficient professional background and as generally poor leaders. According to one woman administrator, "I

would say the incompetence I see has been entirely among the male administrators in the field" (Edson, p. 148).

Many women have considered giving up the struggle for equality in the academic workplace. A survey (Reisser & Zurfluh, 1987) of 87 presidents, vice presidents, provosts, deans, division chairpersons, and directors listed in the Washington Education Association's 1986-1987 directory included women who had seriously considered resigning from their position of leadership. Forty-six (78%) had considered resigning. Reasons offered by the respondents ranged from dissatisfaction over institutional decisions regarding resource allocation, personnel matters, policies or practices (45%) to health factors (2.2%). Reisser and Zurfluh (1987, p. 4) reported those factors which administrators felt most often lead to serious consideration of resigning:

<u>External Factors</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Dissatisfaction over institutional decisions	45.7
Dissatisfaction with current leadership	43.5
Dissatisfaction with decision-making process	41.3
Limited upward mobility	26.1
Lack of mentoring or organizational support for professional growth	26.1
Concern that supervisor was no longer supportive (or was dissatisfied with performance)	23.9
Too much work assigned	17.4
Too many unwanted responsibilities	15.2
Gap between personal values and institutional values	15.2
Discomfort with status, position, or authority	13.0
Discomfort with salary	13.0
Dissatisfaction with social life	13.0
Difficulties with staff members reporting to you	10.9
Dissatisfaction with cultural environment	10.9
Difficulties with colleagues or peers	8.7
Difficulties with students	6.5
Lack of gender equality	4.4
Proportion of men to women in key positions	4.4
More attractive job offer	4.4

Internal Factors

Experiencing stress or burn-out	34.8
Feelings of isolation	21.7
Conflicts between personal and professional priorities, changing personal priorities or values	17.4
Sense of internal transition or development turning point	15.2
Changing professional goals/desire for career change	15.2
Desire for further education or training	8.7
Health factors	2.2

Clearly, women are inundated by (external) factors over which they can exercise very little control. This condition is accompanied by a level of powerlessness which aggravates the level of (internal) dissatisfaction with position (Mattfeld, 1972).

It appears that women still have the awesome task to overcome beliefs and perceptions of potential interviewers who maintain inhibiting postures. A quote from a male administrator may best reflect what women must face; "if the career path to a presidency is through leadership, then it follows that the unique characteristics of male deans and presidents, other than their maleness, deserve attention and perhaps even imitation by females who aspire to such positions" (Paul, Sweet, & Brigham, 1980, p. 14).

Barriers and Career Inhibitors

The young woman entering the academic world as an . . . employee asks to be hired on her qualifications and paid and promoted on the basis of the quality of her work. She knows that if she is married and has young children, the demands need not inhibit her academic career provided quality of work, rather than predetermined stereotypes, is the criterion for evaluation. The woman who has established herself professionally in the academic world seeks the elimination of any barriers to promotion, pay, or other rewards of the academic world, such as committee service, honors, membership in policy-making bodies, and appointment to administrative posts. These barriers do exist because she is a woman, and she asks that they be removed both for herself and for the young women who wish to enter the academic world in increasingly large numbers. (Peterson, 1974, p. 7)

Research findings (Bogenschutz & Sagaria, 1988) indicated that it is crucial to identify career orientations in order to understand perceptions of career growth. Most participants must find the work environment adequate or desirable. Where an organization is responsive, perceived barriers can be minimized and a renewed commitment and growth fostered (Bogenschutz & Sagaria, 1988).

When identifying reasons typically offered why women do not occupy top-level administrative positions in most organizations, Andruskiw and Howes (1980) felt that women are simply being discriminated against. Negative attitudes toward women as administrators make it more difficult for them to assume administrative positions (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980). More research findings (Fesbach, 1974; Janeway, 1974; Schwartz & Rago, 1973) showed women did not fill those roles because they possess characteristics as passivity, competitiveness, submissiveness, and dependence.

Pressures placed on women administrators managers often cause them to feel as though they work in a "fish bowl" (Scott & Spooner, 1989, p. 32). Efforts to ascend into upper level positions seem futile. Generally, having traditional men as peers, women face subtle opposition and have to work harder to prove themselves (McEwen, Williams, & Engstrom, 1991). Women in higher education administration share many of the same problems as nonadministrative women. This similarity was reportedly by virtue of their gender, which overrides differences in career callings (Carroll, 1972).

One result is increased tension for women who are called upon to perform multiple roles. Women who hold policy-making positions in an

institution of higher education generally are required by society to be model mothers and spouses, concerned civic citizens, authors, good teachers, and exceptional managers. Student affairs administrators, in particular, spend on the average of 70 hours per week on the job (Sandeem, 1988). It is conceivable then that most stressors for administrative women are related to the home (Scott & Spooner, 1989). Main sources of stress for men were changes in position, too much work and too little time for women, divorce, death, and serious illness. Scott (1992) cautioned that self-reports on stress may be misleading because women administrators may be more able and willing than men to express their feelings of stress.

At the University of Virginia, a small group of senior women in faculty and administration reported barriers to the advancement of women in higher education. Generally, their concerns were domestic-related. They were (a) the problem that men at the same rank had higher salaries on the average, (b) the lack of a university child care facility and its effect on improved recruitment and retention of professions, (c) inadequate formal maternity leave policy and the possibility of taking time off the tenure clock for extended illness or maternity, and (d) experiencing sexual harassment; however, women failed to report same (Thorner, 1989). Because of the multiple demands made upon their time, executive women concurred that it was most important to have a support group (Elshof & Tomlinson, 1981).

Marshall (1984a) discovered effects of inhibitors to women's career mobility in graduate programs in education administration. In a survey of 165 male and female graduate students, results indicated that women students are older and have less financial support than male students. Women hold lower positions and lower career goals than men in graduate

programs. On this basis, Marshall (1984b) concluded that graduate programs in education administration do not promote equal opportunity.

"Higher education administration can be both challenging and rewarding, and yet it is an area where bright, capable women continue to be underemployed" (Delworth & Jones, 1979, p. 2). Academic positions which comprise individual career paths explain the propensity for career mobility. Having a tenure-track position inhibits movement to other types of careers, while holding a nontenured position increases the propensity to move to nonacademic positions (Breneman & Youn, 1988).

In an examination of family and career characteristics of 112 married women and men university administrators, Bird (1984) found that men and women use similar role-management strategies. Yet, while women administrators considered their careers to demand significantly more time than male administrators, they earned less salary than their male colleagues.

Much of the blame for their inferior mobility into administrative posts may be placed on women themselves. Howard-Hamilton and Robinson (1991) reported an earlier finding that women and men possess differential views of achievement and success. The former may feel successful having a family and a comfortable home, while a climb up the corporate ladder may provide a man similar satisfaction (Horner, 1968, 1987).

Researchers (Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble, & Zellman, 1978) disclosed inhibitors to women's upward mobility. First, they reiterated Horner's (1968) idea that women limit themselves by the definition which they apply to the word success, namely, to enjoy the comfort of family and home. Secondly, women's beliefs about personal skills, abilities, and their

perceptions about why they succeed or fail reinforce nonachievement, and, finally, their underlying motives and values differ from those of men.

A woman's lack of career advancement has been attributed to her own fear that social rejection and a loss of femininity accompany personal achievement and success. Block (1973) found that women were more likely to become professionals when they diverged from the traditional feminine stereotype. Thus, an inverse relationship between femininity and upward mobility was evidenced.

The challenge of an administrative role involves resolution of a variety of problems. Women's participation in the labor force is influenced not only by education but also by age, marital status, presence of young children in the home, attitude of husband, income of husband, and other factors. Bowen (1983) maintained that education, nevertheless, remains an important determinant even after each of these factors is controlled.

Marshall and Jones (1990) studied childbearing sequence and the career development of women administrators in higher education and found no relationship to salary, rank, and title. Most respondents with children believed childbearing hurt their careers; however, others believed it had a positive effect.

Delworth and Jones (1979) outlined several inhibitors to women's upward mobility into administrative positions. Women need to work harder and longer (than men) to gain acceptance and to attain an administrative position. They are not as readily accepted in positions of authority and leadership as their male counterparts, often having their actions scrutinized by those who believe that a man, any man, could do a better job. Cullivan (1990) considered "tradition" as the greatest obstacle for

women to overcome (p. 3). Prejudicial attitudes, however, changing as women demonstrate competence, can work to undermine women's self-confidence in their abilities to be good administrators, adding pressure to an already difficult and demanding role. Women in administration must manage administrative and domestic responsibilities. Since few women will attempt this juggling act, few role models are in place to help women resolve conflicts.

Common obstacles and barriers for women, such as job segregation, exclusion, and salary inequity, are pervasive in institutions throughout the country (Washington & Harvey, 1989). This lack of mentors and blatant discrimination has been classified as a "club-like atmosphere of professions" which continues to diminish opportunities for women (Hoferek, 1986, p. 2). Barriers such as these affect the numbers of women who gain administrative and managerial positions (Delworth & Jones 1979).

In a study of salary and gender discrimination at a public institution, White (1990) found that women were promoted less often than men. This may have accounted for part of an \$8,000 difference in salary for men and women. Research showed, however, that once promoted to a position, men and women were paid the same salary. Salary was then affected by promotion policies rather than by overt salary discrimination.

An academic process has been known to inhibit movement of numbers of women into the higher education administrative arena. The 1972 Higher Education Guidelines required college recruitment and hiring activities to reflect affirmative policies. Search procedures demonstrated progress in hiring women for administrative positions in the late '70s; however, there has been little increase in the rate of candidates from

underrated groups (Cullivan, 1991; Ost & Twale, 1989). Their career mobility through the administrative hierarchy is inhibited by the university's formal structure and minimal "time-in-line" experience (Ost & Twale, p. 24). Traditionally, career mobility in higher education occurs by movement through fixed positions, a series of appointments with increased levels of responsibility. Ost and Twale (1989) felt that in order to increase the rate with which members from underrated groups are hired, the pool must continually be replenished, having women and minorities included. A breakdown in this process has attributed to the underrepresentation.

Subtle, confusing, demoralizing organizational barriers exist, often without public acknowledgement by women administrators in higher education (Stokes, 1984). When asked, at least 50% of women administrators in Florida identified impediments to their professional responsibilities and careers (Reisser & Zurfluh, 1987). Women reported to have been excluded from collegial relationships and constantly ignored during important discussions; when she has been included, an administrative woman is interrupted often in group discussions. Rarely is she addressed by her title (Dean, Ms., Dr.) as often as her male colleagues. When she is the lone female in a group, the woman administrator is likely to be isolated, treated as trivial, or ignored.

Research showed that women were more likely to assume personal responsibility for failure than males (Reisser & Zurfluh, 1987). It remains difficult for women to receive recognition for their accomplishments because others assume that someone else makes the decisions, regardless of women administrators' actual power and authority. In their study, Pavan

and McCloud (1990) investigated gender differences in the career paths of aspirant and incumbent certificate holders. Pavan found that two-thirds of the certified women were channeled into staff positions directed by line officers. Subsequently, women's contributions remained largely unrecognized or undervalued because organizations tend to recognize overall goal accomplishment, typically attributed to the line officer. Pavan and McCloud (1990) suggested that administrators must reexamine their promotion policies and attitudes to determine whether opportunities for women to assume line positions are being provided.

Respondents experienced difficulty in establishing credibility for their ideas and proposals and claimed to have to work twice as hard and expend more energy than the average man in order to succeed. Having less access to power, women felt they were less influential on their superiors' decisions than their male colleagues (Reisser & Zurfluh, 1987).

It is only rarely that women recognize that they are not alone in their perceptions. Most female colleagues share similar concerns, although few share them in conversation (Stokes, 1984). Women noted a disadvantage in the profession that often their peers at higher levels and other areas of campus are not women, thus contributing to loneliness, frustration, and even anger (McEwen, Williams, & Engstrom, 1991).

In "Questions Relating to Women," Emily Davies (1973) remarked, "I cannot be satisfied for women to accept, and I do not believe that they will accept, permanently, a lower standing in the educational world than that of men" (Davies, p. 141). Historically, it has been the rule that women were passed over for promotion because they were not strong enough and too emotional, while men with similar disqualifications were selected.

Any job a woman does is usually downgraded the moment she has proven she can do it. Reisser and Zurfluh (1987) contended that this partially accounts for the reason that strong women, resisting various overtures, are trapped by colleagues into a more militant stance than they prefer.

Higher education institutions can be greatly improved by the addition of women and minorities to the pool from which leaders are drawn. "We know from experience that the best managed institutions--those most creative, dynamic, and responsive to change--are committed to and supportive of the advancement of women and minorities" (Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984, p. 98).

The higher women advance in administration, the greater are the barriers to their success (Reisser & Zurfluh, 1987). Strategies to overcome these barriers are being developed as women's networks and solid research on institutional environments are ushering in a revolution in education. However, this complex task requires collective action. Tinsley, Secor, and Kaplan (1984) best captured the vision when they cautioned institutions that do not make use of the skills of women and minorities are wasting enormous talent and potential.

Student Affairs Administration

The distribution of women in the professional ranks, by discipline, suggests patterns of segregation and exclusions. Hoferek (1986) discovered that within disciplines and certain academic institutions there are no women in the highest positions of the status hierarchies. Given the patterns, one could question where the potential female leaders have gone, why they are not in positions of power, and what can be done.

Paterson (1987) described criteria considered desirable in a Chief Student Affairs Officer (CSAO). One who successfully acquires this senior level position possesses an earned doctorate in higher education or student affairs administration, has significant experience (more than 5 years) in student affairs administration, holds membership in at least one professional organization associated with student affairs, has a record of publication, and has a record of program presentations at conferences, conventions, and workshops.

By examining the search process for selecting new deans of student services, Haro (1991) revealed that search and screening committees were often instructed to seek doctorates in education with an emphasis in student personnel services, student development, and/or higher education administration. They were frequently directed to eliminate candidates who possessed no doctorate degree. Highest priority was given to candidates who were already deans or vice presidents for student affairs; those who were not were usually eliminated from finalists. The successful candidates usually worked their way up the ladder.

With the completion of the CAS Standards and Guidelines for Student Services/Development Programs in 1986, Student Affairs has set informal standards of training selection and admission for its professionals. These standards and guidelines warranted that positions in student affairs generally require a master's degree, preferably in student personnel. Subsequently, a chief student affairs officer should possess at a minimum a master's degree (Paterson, 1987). Now, most CSAOs have earned the doctoral degree. Most advertisements for vice presidents for student affairs positions specify this degree as a minimum qualification (Sandeem, 1991).

Vaala (1989) reviewed selected research findings related to Chief Student Affairs Officer (CSAO) staffing and found that affirmative action laws seem to have little effect in university settings. Instead, it is institutional preferences when hiring a Chief Student Affairs Officer (CSAO) that strongly influence the nature and scope of student affairs administration and program services (Kuh, Evans, & Duke, 1983; Robinson & Moulton, 1985; Rickard, 1985b). In contrast, one in four of the student affairs professionals believed that affirmative action, rather than their own skills, may have influenced their hiring (Brown & Globetti, 1991). Approximately 12% of CSAOs are women and about 9% are minorities. The majority of women CSAOs are found in private institutions, and minority CSAOs are more frequently found in large public universities (Sandeem, 1991).

Often when a woman fills a senior-level position, reasons for her selection are questionable. When Haro (1991) questioned university officers whose institutions were very interested in hiring women as vice presidents for student affairs, it was apparent that institutions considered hiring a woman as a student services chief as a "safe way" to add women to the "executive group without disturbing the faculty and, at the same time, meet an affirmative action goal" (Haro, 1991, p. 152). However, Johnsrud (1991) determined that no need is more urgent today than the full participation and achievement of minorities in higher education. The academy must reverse the trend in declining participation, create a wholly new momentum, and sustain our efforts until all minority groups are participating fully as students, faculty, and administrators. To undermine the efforts of any individual to realize their potential is ethically and

morally irresponsible. Moreover, such a failure undercuts society at large by crippling efforts to develop a fully functioning and engaged work force and to improve the quality of life for both present and future generations.

A study (Paterson, 1987) of Chief Student Affairs Officers (CSAOs) who filled positions advertised in the Chronicle of Higher Education in 1984 yielded that this position continues to be dominated by males. Several studies (Brooks & Avila, 1974; Burkhalter, 1984; Kuh, Evans, & Duke, 1983; Ostroth, Efrid, & Lerman, 1984) revealed that at least 80% of CSAOs were men; 74% of the Chief Student Affairs Officers were men in Paterson's (1987) study. Approximately 63% of the CSAOs held doctorate degrees; 40% of these held the doctorate in student personnel or higher education administration. A profile further determined that many CSAOs (22%) advanced to their present position from positions outside the profession (Paterson, 1987).

Rickard (1985a) studied male and female, as well as minority and nonminority, senior-level administrators in student affairs. He found that females differed from males on several variables. Women were appointed at a younger age, had less education, and held different position titles than men. No differences between minorities and nonminorities were evidenced on any of the research variables.

In their qualitative investigation of feminization in student affairs, McEwen, Williams, and Engstrom (1991) noticed a growing gender imbalance, only to find that women predominate at the lower and middle levels of the profession. The investigators contended that the profession has maintained a feminine voice--that the nature of student affairs work involves nurturing, a caring orientation, sharing,

facilitation, and similar attributes found in women. In a similar study Hughes (1989) equated maleness with effective leadership in the student affairs profession.

Kuh (1983) surveyed 212 chief student affairs to determine career paths, individual characteristics, and the influence of school size on responsibilities of these administrators. In his findings, Kuh (1983) discovered that few, if any, changes had occurred in administrator responsibilities in recent years. Researchers further indicated that administrators from small colleges were more likely to have more experience in student financial affairs work. This may have been attributed to a notion that this group of administrators was more prepared for student affairs work.

In an examination (Harder, 1983) of careers patterns and characteristics of 104 chief student personnel administrators, data indicated that nearly half the administrators reported planning to remain in their positions until retirement, thereby limiting the availability of administrative positions for career mobility. Most of these administrators were under 50 years of age and, thus, considered relatively young. The investigation revealed decreased opportunities for upward mobility, revealing that ascension may be adversely affected because of a decline in college and university enrollment. As a result, fewer administrative positions are being retained. Also regarded as a factor in decreased opportunity for upward mobility was the increasing number of tenured faculty among the increased number of employees.

In a survey of 335 Chief Student Affairs Officers, research results confirmed that mobility at the top level of this profession is decreasing

(Ostroth, 1984). Most student affairs administrators had held previous positions in teaching, and, although most acknowledged the value of publications for upward mobility, few had published.

Sagaria and Johnsrud (1991) identified an obvious need to think in new ways. They felt that, primarily, CSAOs must be visionaries who identify and articulate goals, secure and sustain resources, and who act as catalysts for change. Efforts of these senior administrators make a strong statement about the expectations they hold for others. Second, because entry and mid-level positions provide the training grounds for senior positions, more opportunities for women's involvement must begin at those levels, however, lasting for a shorter period of time (Sagaria & Johnsrud, 1991).

Summary of the Related Literature

Fundamental and intrinsic to any selected sex-role system is the investing of the male with a higher value than the female (Chetwynd & Hardnett, 1978). Differential early childhood socialization principles are guided by this interaction. Similarly, sex-role stereotyping in the job market influences career mobility and outcome (Breneman & Youn, 1988). It appears, then, that male dominance in professions has evolved out of a school of thought which accords much lip service, albeit little priority, to the relative position of women in administration.

Limited in its application to women, career pattern theory reflects that factors which affect men and women (e.g., marriage and mobility) remain predictors of the occupations which women choose. Career issues are resolved not without regard for domestic responsibilities, partner's achievement, and spouse's career. Internal occupational specialty markets,

formed by individual institutions, impose a bureaucratic mode of social control over its employees. The basic problems of the specialty market are pervasive within the structure of American higher education, where positional inequality and salary differentials remain substantially in favor of men (Barbezat, 1988).

Attribution and socialization studies (Duquin, 1979; Howard-Hamilton, 1991) have shown that women are relegated to positions as a result of traditional socialization patterns. Women administrators have differential childhood, adolescent, and educational experiences. They exhibit personality traits and career patterns unlike women who remain in the classroom or nonadministrative positions.

Considered intellectually inferior during colonial times, women have had to overcome barriers and exclusions to ensure their intellectual position beside men in academia. This effort was not without implementation of federal policies, legislation, and national advancement strategies. If strides were small in academic affairs, they were minuscule in the student affairs profession. Investigators (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980) concluded that women are simply being discriminated against, and, subsequently, women assume fewer and lower administrative positions.

Future trends indicate that the chief student affairs officer should have an awareness of 21st century emerging racial and ethnic relationships and gender issues on campus (Sandeem, 1991). Further, it will be important that institutions look for women, minorities, and women of color as administrators to support a diversified student constituency (Sagaria & Johnsrud, 1991). Inclusion of more women at administrative levels is an essential step toward solving such urgent problems as loneliness, attrition,

isolation, and harassment. Researchers (Sagaria & Johnsrud, 1991) reminded CSAOs of their main goal, to create campus environments that mirror cultural richness of our country and to ensure full equity.

CHAPTER 3 PROCEDURES AND METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this investigation was to examine specific factors that affect the career patterns of men and women who hold senior administrative positions in student affairs. A survey, "Career Paths in Higher Education Administration," was used to find what factors promote or inhibit the advancement to administrative positions for men and women. This chapter documents the design of the study, describes the administrative population, details the methods used to collect the research data, and reports the study's procedures.

The Research Questions

This study examined the following research questions:

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|-------------------------|--|
| Research Question One | What are the differences in rank between senior administrative positions held by men and women in student affairs? |
| Research Question Two | What are the differences in factors/forces which encourage mobility for men and women in upper levels of student affairs administration? |
| Research Question Three | What are the differences in factors/forces which inhibit mobility for men and women in upper levels of student affairs administration? |
| Research Question Four | What career patterns have proven successful for men and women who become upper-level student affairs administrators? |

Population, Sample, and Selection Procedures

In order to select the subjects who participated in the study, the author identified administrators who serve at the upper administrative levels in student affairs. The investigator identified administrators in senior-level student affairs positions using the membership handbooks of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrations (NASPA) and the National Association for Women in Education (NAWE). For the purposes of this study, this designation included student personnel administrative positions as associate dean, dean, assistant vice president/vice chancellor, associate vice president/vice chancellor, and vice president/vice chancellor. No restrictions on the type of institution were made. Thus, senior administrators at universities, colleges, community colleges, and technical schools throughout the United States comprised the population.

In order to select the study sample, all of the NASPA and NAWE members holding the appropriate title were identified. A total of 1,180 men and 527 women were identified from the NASPA membership list; 218 women NAWE members were also identified. From these membership lists, a systematic random sample of 300 men and 243 women was selected by choosing every fourth male and every third female among the list of administrators. Women whose name appeared on both NAWE and NASPA membership rosters were selected only once. This procedure ensured all members of the population equal probability for inclusion in the resultant sample (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Employing probability sampling procedures ensured that the resultant sample selected for participation in this study was representative of senior level men and

women in administrative positions in student affairs, defined as those holding the title of associate dean or above.

Instrumentation

Career Paths in Higher Education Administration was used as the evaluation/survey instrument for this study. Developed by Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, and Marin (1988), the 18-item survey can be used to determine what and how specific factors promote or inhibit advancement to administrative positions in higher education. This instrument was developed as a result of an effort by the American Council on Education/National Identification Program of Oakland University to identify and enhance the promotion of leaders in higher education administration. It was designed to elicit information in three general areas: career development, factors perceived as important for career development, and demographic characteristics. Information was collected regarding how administrators entered the field, their academic and occupational experiences, and future goals (Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, & Marin, 1988). The Career Paths in Higher Education Administration instrument was pretested with a "judgmental sample" of academic and nonacademic deans, provosts, nonacademic vice-presidents and presidents (personal communication, Warner, 1991). This pretesting was based on a random sample of 800 academic administrators who held the title of dean or above.

The instrument is comprised of three sections: first, section one of the questionnaire is concerned with the respondent's career development; section two is concerned with the respondent's educational and professional experiences; and section three of the questionnaire seeks demographic

information by asking a series of demographic questions. Questions in each section of the instrument included directions for completion.

Section One

Section one was made up of four questions on career development. In questions one and two, respondents used a multiple choice format to indicate their method of career entry and career goals, respectively. In question three, the respondents ranked factors in terms of their relative influence on their administrative career pattern. Question four requested a list of each respondent's career administrative positions.

Section Two

Section two included six questions concerned with the respondent's educational and professional experiences. In question five, the respondent ranked educational and/or training experience in order of perceived significance, with most helpful experiences ranked 1, the second most helpful experience ranked 2, etc. In item six, the respondents provided information regarding the degree obtained and the department through which it was earned. Item seven asked that the administrator rank the importance of several factors and their relative importance at the beginning of a career, as well as the current importance. Factors included career, parenting, relationship with spouse, community/political involvement, leisure, and other. The professional's organizational involvement and leadership position(s) held were listed in item eight. In question nine, administrators ranked the importance of their involvement in professional organizations as it related to their career development. Question ten addressed barriers and/or constraints to professional advancement in

general. In question ten respondents could also indicate constraints to personal career advancements.

Section Three

Demographics obtained in this section included size and type of institution, institutional student composition, marital and familial information, age, ethnicity, and gender information. Administrators were encouraged to make comments regarding development and/or career goals.

Data Collection

The Career Paths in Higher Education Administration instrument (Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, & Marin, 1988) was used to collect standardized information from a sample drawn from a predetermined population of senior-level student affairs administrators. The Career Paths in Higher Education Administration (Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, & Marin, 1988) instrument was mailed to senior-level student affairs administrators whose names were randomly selected from each of the two rosters.

The survey instrument packet included an explanatory letter of transmittal expressing this researcher's appreciation and requesting each administrator's voluntary participation. In order to elicit a maximal rate of return, University of Florida senior administrators Dr. Art Sandeen, Vice President for Student Affairs, and Dr. Helen Marmachev, Associate Vice President for Student Affairs, co-authored a letter in support of the present research to be included in the survey packet. Each had previously served as national president of NASPA and NAWA, respectively, and each remains a highly respected student affairs practitioner.

A reasonable, yet firm, return date as established was stressed to participants. A stamped, self-addressed envelope was also included in each packet. To ensure confidentiality, the return envelopes did not bare the names of the administrators. Each packet was assigned a 4-digit code number to determine the rate and source of the responses, while protecting the confidentiality of each respondent.

Subsequent to a period of 2 weeks, the researcher mailed a follow-up postcard to remind administrators to return questionnaires. Any administrator who had not responded subsequent to a second request was eliminated from the study for purposes of survey analysis. Sixty percent return was identified as a minimally acceptable rate of return of survey instruments. The actual rate of return overall was 67.59%.

Data Analysis

Using the instrument, Career Paths in Higher Education Administration, (Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, & Marin, 1988), survey data were reported and research variables analyzed using the SAS statistical package. Descriptive analyses of data were reported using a variety of methods and representations of specified data compatible with the research questions and the type of inferences to be made from the data. Qualitative data obtained through comments made on the questionnaire were used to support statistical inferences. Because the method of data analysis varied as a result of the nature of the research question, the method used for individual questions is reported.

Research Question One

What are the differences in rank between senior administrative positions held by men and women in student affairs?

Research question one was analyzed using a chi-square test to determine whether a significant relationship existed between a respondent's current administrative position held (survey item 4) and gender (survey item 19). An alpha level of .05 was used to determine statistical significance.

Research Question Two

What are the differences in factors/forces which encourage mobility for men and women in upper levels of student affairs administration?

Research question two was investigated by analyzing data generated from survey items 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19. Categorical models were established for survey items having (a) single data variables, or items 1, 2, 9, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, and 19, and (b) multiple data variables, or survey items 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 13, and 16. A loglinear analysis was used to determine statistical significance between gender and each of the above-referenced items.

Research Question Three

What are the differences in factors/forces which inhibit mobility for men and women in upper levels of student affairs administration?

In order to analyze data generated by responses to research question three, the gender difference in the number of reported career inhibitors and constraints was reported. Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, were assessed as indicated by men and women. Data were analyzed using a two-way hypothesis test for differences between

proportions. Using survey item ten, respondents addressed factors which presented barriers for themselves and for people in general. The null hypothesis was stated, specifically, $H_0 : P_{\text{men}} = P_{\text{women}}$, or there would be no difference between the proportion of perceived factors/forces which inhibit the mobility of men into senior positions of student affairs administration and those which inhibit women into similar positions of administration. An alternate hypothesis was $H_a : P_{\text{men}}$ is not equal to P_{women} , or the proportion of perceived factors/forces which inhibit the mobility of men into senior positions of student affairs administration is not equal to those which inhibit women into similar positions of administration.

Because a series of z-tests was used in data analysis, it was important to control for the rate of Type I error. A Bonferonni procedure was used to control for the overall Type I error rate. The alpha level was set at .15 for the series of 25 tests. This yielded an individual alpha level of .006 or .15/25 tests. As a result, a confidence level of 85% overall was obtained; a 99.4% confidence level was used per individual test.

Research Question Four

What career patterns have proven successful for men and women who become upper level student affairs administrators?

Question four was analyzed using a loglinear analysis to determine whether a statistically significant relationship existed between the administrators' current position held (survey item 4) and gender of respondent (survey item 19), department from which degree was obtained (survey item 6), and whether or not the administrator had ever held a faculty position (survey item 4). Where an interaction was evidenced, a chi-square test was done at the .05 level to determine the significance of the

effect. Data were further analyzed using a t-test to determine the difference in gender response to the quantitative variable, number of years between obtaining their highest degree, and securing their current position (survey items 4 and 6), if any. Variances in gender response were measured and statistical significance reported.

Limitations of the Study

The survey has been considered the most widely used means of contemporary educational research because of its cost-effective and efficient nature (Borg & Gall, 1989). Yet, limitations are inherent to the use of selected types of surveys which are dependent on direct communication with persons having specific behaviors appropriate to an investigation (Isaac & Michael, 1981).

Isaac and Michael (1981) cautioned that participation in a study, in and of itself, generates from participants' responses which may be misleading. First, the investigator can only report returns from willing participants who may feel "special or unnatural," and this may be reflected in their responses (p. 128). Respondents' awareness that they are participating in a research project may be accompanied by a disposition to answer questions in a manner which is socially desirable.

Rater bias may be evidenced, particularly in one's inclination to identify with positive cues or to express displeasure or an affinity for certain items, traits, or characteristics. This reaction bias may evoke consistent or patterned ratings in respondents' assessments (Isaac & Michael, 1981).

To avoid ambiguity, misinterpretation, and, subsequently, invalidation of results, the investigator must provide a careful, clear statement of the problem to those in receipt of a mailed questionnaire. This

limitation may be reduced by a masterful design, skillful introduction, and justification of the instrument (Isaac & Michael, 1981). Unfortunately, each of the above involves a subjective measure. Even after much care is taken, there exists little assurance that the consumer will receive the message of the letter of transmittal and survey items in the manner in which intended by the investigator.

Borg and Gall (1989) warned that use of a cross-sectional survey to investigate time-ordered relationships presents a "serious source of error" (p. 421). Respondents' recall may have become faulty over an extended lapsed period. Researchers contended that this recollection of previous opinions, feelings, and attitudes may be "distorted" in light of new-found values.

The present study was limited by the lack of an applicable universal, working definition of the term *career path*. As a result, the application of an operational definition to this abstract idea was very important.

Finally, the results of this study may be limited because of the sampling procedure. A random sampling of NASPA and NAWA members may not necessarily ensure representation of the opinions and contemporary attitudes of the population of senior student affairs administrators, at large.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The preceding chapters have developed a general perspective from which this study was conceptualized. Chapter 1 presented the research problem along with the research questions under investigation. Chapter 2 examined selected literature relevant to the research problem. The body of literature linked socialization theory and attribution studies to career concept and, ultimately, to career paths and barriers to successful careers. Strategies developed and implemented to overcome the problem of underrepresentation among women in the academic labor market were also reviewed. Population samples and methodological considerations were described in Chapter 3. This chapter discusses results and findings emanating from the study.

Career Paths in Higher Education Administration

Developed by Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, and Marin (1988), Career Paths in Higher Education was mailed to 300 men and 243 women who are senior student affairs administrators. A total of 367 or 67.59% survey instruments were returned. Men returned 204 or 55.46% of the total number of instruments, while women returned 163 or 44.54%. Of the survey instruments mailed to men administrators, a rate of return was 67.66%. Returning 163 of 243 surveys yielded a 67.08% rate for women.

Results of Analysis of Research Question One

The first research question dealt with whether there is a difference in the current position held by men and women in senior-level administrative positions in student affairs. A two-way table shows the relationship between the current position held and administrator gender (the key to the table is in the upper left corner [see Table 1]). The first row in each cell represents the frequency of observations in that cell, the second row yields the percentage in that cell out of all observations in the table. The third row shows the percentage in that cell out of the row total. For example, 39 associate deans responded; 21 or 53.85% were female and 18 or 46.15% of the associate deans were male. Women accounted for 72 (43.33%) deans, as men held slightly more positions as dean (76 or 51.35%). Thirty respondents to question one were assistant vice presidents/vice chancellors; 13 (43.33%) were female and 17 (56.67%) were male. Associate vice presidents/vice chancellors were 17 in number: 8 (47.06%) were female and 9 (52.94%) were male. Of 132 vice presidents, females comprised 49 or 37.12%, while men held 83 or 62.88% of these positions. The bottom row shows the percentage in that cell of the column total; specifically, 366 administrators responded to question one: 163 or 44.54% were women and 203 or 55.46% were men.

Table 1 shows that the gender percentages are very close for associate deans, deans, assistant vice presidents/vice chancellors, and associate vice presidents/vice chancellors, respectively. This is not the case in the vice president/chancellor category.

Table 1

Comparison of Current Position Held and Administrator Gender

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	Female	Male	Total
Associate Dean	21 5.74 53.85 12.88	18 4.92 46.15 8.87	39 10.66
Dean	72 19.67 48.65 44.17	76 20.77 51.35 37.44	148 40.44
Assistant Vice President/Chancellor	13 3.55 43.33 7.98	17 4.64 56.67 8.37	30 8.20
Associate Vice President/Chancellor	8 2.19 47.06 4.91	9 2.46 52.94 4.43	17 4.64
Vice President/ Vice Chancellor	49 13.39 37.12 30.06	83 22.68 62.88 40.89	132 36.07
Total	163 44.54	203 55.46	366 100.00

Note. One administrator failed to respond to question one.

Table 2 reports the test statistics associated with Table 1. Although the disparity between the reported frequency of men and women vice presidents/vice chancellors is larger than in others, the results of the chi-square tests were not statistically significant (see Table 2). The results of the

2 x 5 chi-square test (gender x positions), having 4 degrees of freedom, yielded a value of 5.381 and a p-value (Prob) of 0.250. Because this is larger than any reasonable alpha level, for example 0.05, we fail to reject the null hypothesis. It appeared that there was not sufficient statistical evidence to indicate that men and women experience a difference in the senior administrative positions which they currently hold.

Table 2

Statistical Analysis for Comparison of Current Position Held and Gender

Statistic	df	Value	Prob
Chi Square	4	5.381	0.250

Effective Sample Size = 366

Frequency Missing = 1

A second series of chi-square tests was done to further analyze the research data. Using each administrative category, i.e., associate dean, dean, etc., five 2 x 2 (gender x position) chi-square tests were done to determine whether the difference in percentage between men and women was statistically significant for (any) individual position(s). A Bonferroni technique was used to control for the overall Type I Error rate. The overall alpha level was fixed at 0.10, yielding an individual alpha level of 0.02 (0.10/5) for each of the five tests.

Associate Dean. Shown in Table 3 is a comparison of men and women who hold associate dean positions and those who hold positions other than associate dean. Three hundred sixty-six administrators' responses were used to analyze research question one. Although there were

more men surveyed than were women, this category was the only senior-level position in which women accounted for a larger composition than did their male counterparts. Twenty-one women and 18 men were associate deans; 12.88% of all women who responded were associate deans, while only 8.87% of men respondents were included in this category.

A chi-square statistical analysis (see Table 3) reflected that, while women comprise a larger percentage overall (53.85%) of the associate dean positions than men (46.15), there was no statistical evidence to conclude that there was a significant difference between the percentage of the men in the sample and the women in the sample who hold associate dean positions.

Table 3

Chi Square Analysis for Associate Dean by Gender

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	Female	Male	Total
Non-Associate Dean	142 38.69 43.29 87.12	186 50.68 56.71 91.18	328 89.37
Associate Dean	21 5.74 53.85 12.88	18 4.92 46.15 8.87	39 10.66
Total	163 44.41	204 55.59	367 100
Chi Square	1 df	Value: 1.572	Prob: 0.210

Dean. Seventy-two women (48.65%) and 76 men (51.35%) completed the total of 148 deans. The reported frequency for men deans, although greater than that for women, represents 37.25% of men respondents. By far, the largest number of senior women administrators is concentrated at the dean level; 44.17% of all women who responded were deans (see Table 4). In a test to determine differences in the percentage of men and women who hold the position as dean, if any, a chi-square test for statistical analysis using a 0.02 level of significance and having 1 degree of freedom rendered a value of 1.801 with a probability of 0.180. The results in Table 4 indicate no evidence of a statistical difference in gender percentages.

Table 4

Chi-Square Analysis for Dean by Gender

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	Female	Male	Total
Non-Dean	91 24.80 41.55 55.83	128 34.88 58.45 62.75	219 59.67
Dean	72 19.62 48.65 44.17	76 20.71 51.35 37.25	148 40.33
Total	163 44.41	204 55.59	367 100
Chi Square	1 df	Value: 1.801	Prob: 0.180

Assistant Vice President/Vice Chancellor. The column percentages of men and women who held the position as assistant vice president and/or assistant vice chancellor were relatively proximal. Specifically, 8.33% of men and 7.98% of women who returned surveys comprised this category. However, the frequency was marginal, as it related to men (17) and women (13), alike. Thirty assistant vice presidents/vice chancellors accounted for only 8.17% of the overall return. A chi-square analysis (1 df) yielded a value of 0.015, having a probability of 0.901, and determined that there is no evidence of a difference in the percentage of men and women who hold this position (see Table 5).

Table 5

Chi Square Analysis for Assistant Vice President/Vice Chancellor by Gender

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	Female	Male	Total
Non-Assistant Vice President/Vice Chancellor	150 40.87 44.51 92.02	187 50.95 55.49 91.67	337 91.83
Assistant Vice President/ Vice Chancellor	13 3.54 43.33 7.98	17 4.63 56.67 8.33	30 8.17
Total	163 44.41	204 55.59	367 100
Chi Square	1 df	Value: 0.015	Prob: 0.901

Associate Vice President/Vice Chancellor. The smallest frequency of any senior level position as evidenced by either gender was ascribed to the associate vice presidency. Only 17 respondents, or 4.64 %, were either associate vice presidents or associate vice chancellors. Nine were men, while eight were women. This paucity accounts for a mere 4.91% of the total of women respondents, and a smaller 4.43% of men who responded. A chi-square analysis was done to determine whether a significant difference existed between the percentages of men and women who hold the position as associate vice president/vice chancellor. Having 1 degree of freedom, a value of 0.051 was obtained with a probability of 0.822 (see Table 6). With an established individual alpha level of 0.02, the chi-square test was not statistically significant. Therefore, there was no evidence of a difference between the percentage of men and women who hold the position as associate vice president/vice chancellor.

Vice President/Vice Chancellor. Notably, the highest position in the student affairs profession the vice president/vice chancellor position boasted a composition of 83 men and 49 women in the total sample. Totals for this senior position included 30.06% of all women surveyed, as well as 40.69 of all men who responded. A chi-square analysis (see Table 7) of gender percentages resulted in a value of 1.572, with a p-value of 0.210, having 1 df. Despite the fact that the row percentage difference between men and women in this position is the largest of all the positions examined, there was no evidence that a statistical difference existed in the percentage of men and women who hold vice president and/or vice chancellor positions in student affairs. As a result, this researcher concluded that there was no evidence of a gender difference in the current administrative positions held.

Table 6

Chi-Square Analysis for Associate Vice President/Vice Chancellor by Gender

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	Female	Male	Total
Non-Associate Vice President/Vice Chancellor	155 42.23 44.29 95.09	195 53.13 55.71 95.59	350 95.37
Associate Vice President/ Vice Chancellor	8 2.18 47.06 4.91	9 2.45 52.94 4.41	17 4.63
Total	163	204	367
Percent	44.41	55.59	100
Chi Square	1 df	Value: 0.051	Prob: 0.822

Research Question Two

What are the differences in factors/forces which encourage mobility for men and women into upper levels of student affairs administration?

Research question two was investigated by analyzing data generated from survey items 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19. Categorical models were established for survey items having (a) single data variables, or items 1, 2, 9, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18, and 19, and (b) multiple data variables, or survey items 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 13, and 16. A loglinear analysis was used to determine statistical significance with each item and gender.

Table 7

Chi-Square Analysis for Vice President/Vice Chancellor by Gender

Frequency Percent Row Percent Column Percent	Female	Male	Total
Non-Vice President	114 31.06 48.51 69.94	121 32.97 51.49 59.31	235 64.03
Vice President	49 13.35 37.12 30.06	83 22.62 62.88 40.69	132 35.97
Total Percent	163 44.41	204 55.59	367 100
Chi Square	1 df	Value: 1.572	Prob: 0.210

Single variable survey items

The single variable survey items were analyzed as separate two-way tables. An alpha level of .05 was used.

Survey item 1. In the first survey item, administrators were asked to describe their method of entry into higher education administration. Six alternatives were presented. Findings indicate that the greatest percentage of women (33.13%) were recruited for their entry-level position. Generally, men (36.76%) actively sought higher education as a career goal. They were recruited for their position (27.45%) as a secondary method of entry. Higher education was an actively sought after career goal for women 26.99% of the

time. Women also applied for their position (20.25%); they were directed or inspired by a woman (12.27%); and they received direction and inspiration from a man (5.52%). Other reported methods accounted for less than 2% of women's responses.

Men (17.65%) gained their entry positions through application and were directed or inspired by a man 14.71% of the time. One man reported to have been directed or inspired by a woman. Fewer than 3% reported other methods of entry. Because the expected cell frequency was less than 5 in some of the responses to this variable, chi-square tests were not used.

Survey item 2. In survey item 2, administrators were asked to identify their career goal for the next 5 years. A large percent of women aspired to be promoted to another position in higher education (41.98%) and to remain in their present position in higher education (39.51%). Fewer women (4.94%) desired to leave education for other employment and looked forward to retirement (9.88%). Men planned to remain in their present administrative positions 48.5% of the time. This choice was followed closely by men (38.24%) who desired to be promoted to another position in higher education. A small representation of men anticipated retirement (10.78%), while five men reportedly desired to leave the field of higher education for other employment.

Results of a chi-square test gave evidence that a statistically significant difference existed in the career goals expressed by men and women. The obtained p-value was .0025, which is smaller than the .05 level of significance. Specifically, there was evidence of a difference in the 5-year career goals of men and women.

Survey item 9. An analysis of data in survey item 9 was done using a chi-square procedure. Administrators were asked to assess the importance of their involvement in professional organizations. One out of two men considered this involvement as somewhat important. Similar involvement was seen as very important by 36.27% of the men surveyed; 13.24% of men respondents viewed involvement in professional organizations as important to their career development. Women saw this same involvement as very important (43.56%), somewhat important (36.81%), and not at all important (17.79%) in their career development. A chi-square test yielded a p-value of .05 with 3 degrees of freedom (df). It is concluded that there is no evidence of a difference in the importance of involvement in professional organizations to career development as perceived by men and women.

Survey item 12. Gender differences in enrollment was a focus of survey item 12. A t-test was used to analyze the male to female student ratio at administrators' institutions. The results of the t-test yielded a p-value of 0.0059 (see Table 8). There is sufficient evidence to conclude that a statistically significant difference exists in the percentage of female enrollment at institutions where men and women administer student affairs programs. The analysis showed that more women (57.80%) administer student affairs programs at institutions having largely female enrollments. Also, over half of the male administrators (53.15%) are employed at schools having predominantly female enrollments.

Table 8

T-test Procedure for Percentage of Enrollment

Gender	N	Mean	SD	Std Error	Variance	T	df	prob> T
Women	152	0.578	0.1794	0.0145				
Men	195	0.531	0.1159	0.0083	Unequal	2.776	245	0.0059
For H_0 : Variances are equal, $F' = 2.40$ $df = (151,194)$ $Prob>F' = 0.000$								

Survey item 14. Survey item 14 reported the marital status of men and women in the sample. Women who were married for the first time comprised 41.10% of women surveyed, while 47 women (28.83%) had never married. Several women (10.43%) had remarried and 13.5% were divorced/separated. Approximately 2% reported living with significant others, while six were partnered. Seven women were unmarried because of religious involvement/commitment to the ministry. Two women were widowed and two failed to respond to this item. Unlike women, most of the men surveyed (69.12%) were married for the first time. Remarried men (16.67%) comprised the second largest category, as 7.35% of the men surveyed had never married. Fewer than 4% of all men who responded were divorced/separated, as compared to triple that number among women. Because over half of the cells had expected counts less than 5, chi-square tests were not performed on this variance.

Survey item 15. Respondents reported the occupation of their partner/spouse in survey item 15. Reported occupations were categorized according to designations specified by the United States Department of

Commerce (1990). Occupations were categorized as (a) managerial and professional specialty occupations, i.e., executive, administrative, managerial; (b) professional specialty; (c) technical, sales, and administrative support, i.e., technicians, clerical, private household, protective services; (d) farming, forestry, and fishing occupations; (e) precision, production, craft, and repair occupations; and (f) operators, fabricators, and laborers, inspectors, handlers, and moving occupations.

Spouses of male administrators were employed in the professional specialty (59.20%) most often. Fewer (20.69%) were administrators/managers or employed in technical or sales positions (17.82%). Three men reported occupations for their wives which would be considered laborers. Only 84 of 163 women who responded to the survey responded to item 15. This frequency may be affected by the number of female administrators who are unmarried (28.83%) and/or divorced (13.5%). Women's spouses were of the professional specialty 47.62% of the time. Women administrators were married to other administrators at a rate of 28.57%. Technical, sales, and administrative support occupations were held by 11.90% of spouses; 7.14% are employed in precision, production, craft, and repair occupations. Two spouses (2.38%) were employed in a farming, forestry, fisheries position.

Survey item 17. Administrators reported their age range in survey item 17. A chi-square test was used to determine whether a gender difference existed in the age of student affairs administrators. Forty-five percent of the women were between 36 and 45 years of age. The 46 to 55 age range accounted for 31.25% of women, and 13.75% are 56 years of age or older. The smallest group of women (10%) was between the ages

of 26 and 35. Most men were between 46 and 55 years old (39.22%). A slightly smaller category, 36 to 45 year olds, was comprised of 34.31% of men—20.59% were 56 or over and 5.88% were between the ages of 26 and 35 years of age. A chi-square test was done for 3 df at .05 alpha level. Having obtained a p-value of 0.035, it is concluded that there exists a statistically significant difference in the age range of male and female student affairs administrators.

Survey item 18. In survey item 18, respondents were asked to indicate their racial/ethnic identification. An overwhelming percentage of men (84.31%) and women (82.82%) surveyed who responded were white, not of Hispanic origin. Fewer than 12% of respondents were black men (11.76%) and women (11.66%). The remainder of males surveyed were Hispanic (2.45%), and Native American (1.47%). Three Hispanic women, three Asian American, and two Native American women completed the total. One female administrator indicated no racial/ethnic identification. Because 67% of the cells had an expected cell frequency less than 5, a chi-square test was not used.

Multiple data variables

The multiple variable survey items were analyzed by comparing loglinear models and subtracting their residual chi-square values to determine the difference in fit of each model (see Table 9). The table shows an analysis of the full model, with all relevant two-way interactions, and an analysis of the main effects, with no interactions for relevant survey items having multiple data variables.

Table 9

Table of Multiple Data Variable Models

	likelihood ratio df	χ^2	difference χ^2	difference df	$\chi^2 .05, df$
Q3					
Full Model	14	4.74	14.2	17	27.587
Main Effects	31	18.94			
Q5					
Full Model	116	54.50	29.86	44	55.758 (.05,40)
Main Effects	160	84.36			
Q6					
Full Model	12	25.32	10.31	8	15.507
Main Effects	20	35.63			
Q7beginning					
Full Model	75	90.49	58.03	37	55.759
Main Effects	112	148.52			
Q7currently					
Full Model	106	87.68	23.04	22	33.924
Final Model	128	110.72			
Q8					
Full Model	7	37.44	0.92	3	7.8147
Main Effects	10	38.36			
Q13					
Full Model	5	24.39	1.63	2	5.99
Final Model	7	26.02			

Survey item 3. In an analysis of survey item 3, the difference between the likelihood chi-square values and the degrees of freedom for the two models yielded an appropriate value of 14.2. Because this is not greater than 27.587, it cannot be concluded that the interactions are significant. Therefore, there is no evidence that professional work experience, biographical background, or educational background have a differential influence on the careers of men and women.

Survey item 5. In a test to determine which educational or training experiences provided help for preparation for their administrative duties, men and women ranked several factors according to their perceived significance. Factors included in survey item 5 were management courses/workshops, personnel management, leadership seminars, on-the-job training, and community volunteer. Respondents offered other factors which included academic/graduate preparation, conference/professional association involvement, and mentors. A loglinear analysis of these factors was done with gender, and a test statistic obtained (29.86) for 44 df to test for the significance of interactions (see Table 9). The critical value of chi square at .05 alpha level and 40 degrees of freedom is 55.7585. The test statistic is not larger than either of the critical values; therefore, it cannot be concluded that the interactions are statistically significant. With 95% confidence, we can say that there was no evidence of a difference between the educational/ training experiences which helped to prepare men for administrative duties when compared to those which helped women.

Survey item 6. Three variables were involved in the analysis of survey item 6: highest degree attained, academic department from which highest degree was obtained, and year degree was attained. Degrees used in the analysis were bachelors, masters, specialist, and doctorate. All departments reported by administrators were arranged into one of several related categories: higher education administration, student affairs, continuing adult education, counselor education/psychology, education, religion/philosophy, and miscellaneous. Degree and department are categorical variables and, thus, were analyzed using a loglinear model, along with gender. To test the significance of the two relevant interaction terms, the differential likelihood

chi-square values from the the full and main effects models were calculated. The difference was 10.31, with 8 degrees of freedom. The critical chi-square value at .05 level of significance is 15.5073. Because 10.31 is not larger than 15.5073, it is concluded that there is no statistically significant difference in the highest degree held and the department from which that degree was obtained for men and women. Because year in which the highest degree was obtained is a quantitative variable, a t-test was used to test for gender difference. At the .05 alpha level, with a p-value of 0.0295, there was sufficient evidence to conclude that a statistically significant difference in the year which the highest degree was attained exists between male and female administrators in student affairs (see Table 10). On average, men in the sample acquired their highest degree approximately 2 years earlier than women. The median year in which men received their highest degree was 1976. The median year for women was 1979. The mode for both men and women administrators was 1980.

Table 10

T-test Procedure for Year of Highest Degree Attained

Gender	N	Mean	SD	Std Error	Variance	T	df	prob> T
Women	159	77.60	8.669	0.6875				
Men	204	75.63	8.410	0.5888	Equal	2.186	361	0.0295
For <i>H₀</i> : Variances are equal, $F' = 1.06$					df = (158,203)	Prob>F' = 0.6820		

Survey item 7. In survey item 7, administrators ranked factors in terms of their relative importance to them, both, at the beginning of their career (b) and currently (c). Variables were assigned as religious involvement (A), community volunteer (C), educational/professional (E), family and friends

(F), mobility (G), community/political involvement (I), leisure (L), parenting (P), relationship with spouse (R), and other (O). First, those factors which were of relative importance at the beginning of a career were tested. A loglinear analysis was done and the results reported for each. A likelihood chi-square test was done and a test statistic, 58.03 at 37 df, obtained; the critical chi-square value at 40 df, .05 level of significance, is 55.7585 (see Table 9). Because the test statistic is greater than the critical value, it is concluded that at least one of the interactions is significant. The interaction between parenting and gender is targeted because it has the lowest p-value (see Table 11). It was replaced in the model and a loglinear analysis done for the new model. The obtained p-value for the interaction between parenting and gender shows statistical significance at 0.000. In a test to determine whether any of the other missing interactions should be included in the model, a test statistic was obtained by calculating differential chi squares and degrees of freedom. The statistic 25.02 was not greater than the critical chi-square value for 30 df at the .05 alpha level, or 43.7729. Subsequently, there is no evidence that any of the other interactions were statistically significant. The significant interaction, importance of parenting at the beginning of an administrator's career, was analyzed using a two-way table. Table 13 shows that over half of the women surveyed (57.67%) and 25.49% of the men felt that parenting was not important at the beginning of their career. Most often, women ranked the importance of parenting second (13.50%) and fifth (12.27%). To this factor, men frequently assigned a third-place rank (22.06%), second (21.57%), and fifth (14.71%). The chi-square test statistic for 6 df, p-value = 0.000 (see Table 13), gave evidence of a statistical difference in those factors which were important at the beginning of the careers of men and women.

Table 11

Full Model for Factors Important at the Beginning of Career

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Gender (Q19)	1	0.13	0.7225
Beginning Religious (Q7BA)	4	9.47	0.0503
Beginning Career (Q7BC)	5	19.39	0.0016
Educational/Professional Development and Involvement (Q7BE)	4	12.52	0.0139
Family and Friends (Q7BF)	5	12.86	0.0247
Mobility (Q7BG)	2	2.25	0.3251
Community/Political Involvement (Q7BI)	6	31.64	0.0000
Leisure (Q7BL)	6	36.43	0.0000
Other (Q7BO)	6	11.59	0.0719
Parenting (Q7BP)	6	23.02	0.0008
Relationship/spouse (Q7BR)	5	30.54	0.0000
Q19*Q7BA	2*	1.58	0.4536
Q19*Q7BC	5*	4.58	0.4689
Q19*Q7BE	3*	1.43	0.6977
Q19*Q7BF	1	0.07	0.7978
Q19*Q7BG	0*	.	.
Q19*Q7BI	6	1.82	0.9532
Q19*Q7BL	5*	1.20	0.9451
Q19*Q7BO	4*	0.82	0.9353

Table 11--continued.

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Q19*Q7BP	6	9.24	0.1606
Q19*Q7BR	5	0.35	0.9965
LIKELIHOOD RATIO	75	90.49	0.1073

*Effects contain one or more redundant parameters

Table 12

Maximum Likelihood Analysis for Beginning of Career

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Gender (Q19)	1	0.90	0.3440
Beginning Religious (Q7BA)	4	3.46	0.4844
Beginning Career (Q7BC)	5	24.14	0.0002
Educational/Professional Development and Involvement (Q7BE)	4	21.90	0.0002
Family and Friends (Q7BF)	5	26.59	0.0001
Mobility (Q7BG)	2	2.40	0.3010
Community/Political Involvement (Q7BI)	6	39.431	0.0000
Leisure (Q7BL)	6	36.37	0.0000
Other (Q7BO)	6	35.20	0.0000
Parenting (Q7BP)	6	28.35	0.0001

Table 12--continued.

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Relationship with spouse (Q7BR)	5	37.99	0.0000
Q19*Q7BP	6	29.66	0.0000
LIKELIHOOD RATIO	106	115.51	0.2482

Table 13

Importance of Parenting at Beginning of Career by Gender

Frequency Row Percent	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Female	94 57.67	4 2.45	22 13.50	9 5.52	5 3.07	20 12.27	9 5.52	163
Male	52 25.49	8 3.92	44 21.57	45 22.06	15 7.35	30 14.71	10 4.90	204
Total	146	12	66	54	20	50	19	367
Chi Square	6 df	Value: 47.818					Prob: 0.000	

In survey item 7, administrators also ranked factors in terms of their relative importance to them currently. By using a loglinear model, significant interactions were found between gender and community/ political involvement and gender and leisure. A maximum likelihood analysis yielded p-values for these interactions as 0.0004 and 0.000, respectively. Therefore, it can be concluded that these interactions were statistically

significant. A discussion of this significance follows. A chi-square test was done to determine whether any of the other interactions should be placed back in the model; a test statistic of 23.04 resulted. The critical value for the .05 alpha level with 22 df is 33.9244. This value is greater than the test statistic; therefore, it cannot be concluded that any of the other interactions are statistically significant.

Two-way tables were used to show the identified significant interactions. They are gender with current importance of community/political involvement and gender with current importance of leisure. Results indicated that men who ranked the current importance of community/political involvement most often ranked this factor fifth (44.33%) out of a possible six choices. They considered it their fourth choice 28.57% of the time, third 11.33% of the time, and second 5.91% of the time. Only one male administrator ranked community/political involvement as the most important factor to him, currently (see Table 14). Generally, women considered community/political involvement as a third (30.25%) or fourth choice (29.01). Four women offered this factor as their first choice, while 17 women did not rank it at all.

Male and female administrators saw the importance of leisure in a differential manner (p -value, 0.001), with men ranking it fourth (38.92%), fifth (25.62%), and third (16.26%) in relative importance. Most women considered leisure as third in level of importance (29.01%); this ranking was followed by fourth- (26.54%) and fifth-place ratings (17.28%). Eight men reported that leisure was least important to them currently, while only one woman did likewise (see Table 15). Interestingly, leisure was the most

important factor to 2.96% of men and 6.79% of women. In the final analysis, 10 men and 11 women attributed no importance at all to leisure.

Table 14

Importance of Community/Political Involvement Currently by Gender

Frequency Row Percent	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Female	17 10.49	4 2.47	14 8.67	49 30.25	47 29.01	21 12.96	10 6.17	162
Male	13 6.40	1 0.49	12 5.91	23 11.33	58 28.57	90 44.33	6 2.96	203
Total	30	5	26	72	105	111	16	365
Chi Square	6 df		Value: 52.983			Prob: 0.000		

Table 15

Importance of Leisure Currently by Gender

Frequency Row Percent	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Female	11 6.79	11 6.79	21 12.96	47 29.01	43 26.54	28 17.28	1 0.62	162
Male	10 4.93	6 2.96	15 7.39	33 16.26	79 38.92	52 25.62	8 3.94	203
Total	21	17	36	80	122	80	9	365
Chi Square	6 df		Value: 23.932			Prob: 0.001		

Survey item 8. Administrators were asked to list any memberships held in professional organizations and to indicate any leadership positions held. Survey item 8 involved the analysis of three categorical variables and one quantitative variable. Responses related to type of position(s) were categorized as committee chairperson, program chairperson, and/or officer. Each variable was analyzed as part of a two-way loglinear model with gender. None of the interactions were statistically significant. The full model and main effects test statistics are shown in Table 9. The test statistic for significant interactions is 0.92 with 3 df. The critical value at the .05 level of significance is 7.8147; 0.92 is not larger than this value. Therefore, there is not sufficient evidence to conclude that the interactions with gender are statistically significant. A t-test was used to analyze the quantitative variable, number of memberships in professional organizations. On the average, men and women held memberships in three professional organizations (see Table 16). The p-value is 0.3861. This is not smaller than .05 level of significance; therefore, we concluded that there is not enough evidence to indicate a statistically significant difference in the number of memberships held by men and women.

Table 16

T-test Procedure for Number of Memberships in Professional Organizations

Gender	N	Mean	SD	Std Error	Variance	T	df	prob> T
Women	162	3.629	1.697	0.1333				
Men	202	3.485	1.476	0.1039	Equal	0.868	362	0.3861
For HO: Variances are equal, F' = 1.32						df = (161,201)	Prob>F' = 0.0617	

Survey item 11. This analysis looked at the type and size of the institution. The results of a loglinear analysis show two important interactions: gender with enrollment and gender with type of institution. Their p-values are 0.0056 and 0.000, respectively. Two-way tables were used to further test for significance. Results showed that women (44.17%) were administrators at institutions having enrollments of 2,500 or less. It appeared that they were less likely to be employed at schools with large enrollments. Specifically, 27.61% of women surveyed worked at institutions having enrollments between 2501 and 10,000. Fewer (15.95%) administered student affairs programs at institutions of 10,001 to 20,000. Two women were employed at colleges and universities of 20,001 or more. Private institutions employed more women (53.99%), while public institutions employed less than half of the women surveyed (46.01%).

At least 65% of all men surveyed administer student affairs programs at institutions having 10,000 or less. Forty men (19.80%) were at schools of 10,001 to 20,000 enrollments. The smallest percentage of male administrators (14.85%) was employed at larger schools of 20,001 or more students. Men worked at public institutions by an overwhelming margin (63.05%) as compared to those at private institutions (36.95%). Subsequently, a chi-square test confirmed that there is evidence of a statistically significant difference (1 df; p-value, .001) in the type of institution which employs men and women. Furthermore, there is evidence that a statistically significant difference exists (p-value, 0.0059) in the enrollments of institutions which employ men and women in student affairs administration.

Survey item 13. Seven data variables were associated with survey question 13, along with gender. Institutions were classified as predominantly

white (w), historically black (b), religiously affiliated (r), multiethnic/minority (m), women's (f), community college (c), and urban (u). Data generated for survey item 13 were analyzed using a loglinear model. Table 17 shows all interactions of interest; interactions which had redundant parameters were not included. Two interactions were not significant (see Table 17). These were (a) gender, with predominantly white institution, with multiethnic/minority and (b) gender, with religious institution, with predominantly white institution. These two interactions were taken out and the model was run again; a final model resulted (see Table 18). All terms were significant in the final model. A test statistic, 1.63, was calculated for comparison of the final model with the first model (see Table 9). The critical value at the .05 alpha level with 2 df is 5.99. Therefore, sufficient evidence does not exist to indicate that the interaction terms removed from the model are statistically significant. There is not enough of a difference in the sample to generalize and conclude that there is a difference in the population.

Three interactions were significant: gender, with historically black institution, and religiously affiliated institution; gender, with historically black institution, and predominantly white institution; and gender, with multiethnic/minority institution, and predominantly white institution. Two-way tables were used to test for significant interactions. Findings indicate that most often women (70.99%) are administrators at schools which are not religiously affiliated, not historically black, nor those which are a combination of the two. However, 43 women surveyed (26.54%) worked at religious schools. Therefore, it appears that coupling the religious institution with the historically black label decreases the likelihood of women in senior administrative positions. Three women were employed at historically black

Table 17

Type of Institution With Noninteractions

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Gender (Q19)	1	0.02	0.8836
Historically Black (B)	1	0.17	0.6833
Community College (C)	1	24.40	0.0000
Women's College (F)	1	55.00	0.0000
Multiethnic Minority (M)	1	0.08	0.7746
Religiously Affiliated (R)	1	84.61	0.0000
Urban (U)	1	44.60	0.0000
Predominantly White (W)	1	112.33	0.0000
Q19*B	1	11.44	0.0007
Q19*M	1	17.32	0.0000
Q19*R	1	21.55	0.0000
Q19*W	1	29.63	0.0000
Q19*B*R	1	27.49	0.0000
Q19*B*W	1	20.79	0.0000
Q19*R*W	1	1.42	0.2331
Q19*M*R	1	0.83	0.3624
Q19*M*W	1	14.35	0.0002
LIKELIHOOD RATIO	.5	24.39	0.0002

Table 18

Type of Institution Final Model

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Gender (Q19)	1	0.13	0.7159
Historically Black (B)	1	0.06	0.8001
Community College (C)	1	24.40	0.0000
Women's College (F)	1	55.21	0.0000
Multiethnic Minority (M)	1	0.20	0.6571
Religiously Affiliated (R)	1	84.47	0.0000
Urban (U)	1	44.51	0.0000
Predominantly White (W)	1	121.70	0.0000
Q19*B	1	12.38	0.0004
Q19*M	1	22.33	0.0000
Q19*R	1	24.95	0.0000

Table 18--continued.

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Q19*W	1	35.77	0.0000
Q19*B*R	1	27.15	0.0000
Q19*B*W	1	21.83	0.0000
Q19*M*W	1	14.88	0.0001
LIKELIHOOD RATIO	.7	26.02	0.0005

institutions, having no religious affiliation. Only one woman surveyed reported to be employed in a senior administrative position at a historically black institution, having a religious affiliation. Similarly, men in student affairs administration were more often working at schools which were neither historically black, nor religiously affiliated. Thirty-nine men were administrators at religiously affiliated schools having no black affiliation. While eight male administrators worked at historically black institutions, no man surveyed administered a student affairs program at a historically black, religiously affiliated institution.

Only 14 women surveyed worked at schools which were not predominantly white institutions. Similarly, 17 out of 204 male administrators surveyed work at schools which are nonwhite. Responses from administrators at multiethnic/minority institutions numbered five women and three men.

Survey item 16. In survey item 16, administrators were asked to report the age(s) of their children. Their children's ages were recoded into the number of children in each of five age groups. Categories were preschool--0 to 4 years, elementary school--5 to 11 years, middle school--12 to 14 years, high school--15 to 18 years, college--19 to 22 years, postcollege--23 years and above. A loglinear model with all relevant two-way interactions was done. All interactions were statistically significant; the highest p-value, 0.0216, was yielded by the interaction of gender with middle school. Because the maximum likelihood ratio test is statistically significant, it can be concluded that there are statistically significant interactions that can be added to the model. However, the higher order interactions involving gender are the only interactions of interest, and these are not statistically significant.

Significant interactions were explored using two-way tables for each of the five groups and gender. Findings indicate that most often male (37.75%) and female (18.40%) administrators who are parents have children who are 23 years of age or older, in postcollege years. It is most unlikely that women in student affairs administration would have children who are college age; only 6.13% do. Men were least likely to have children in preschool (14.22%) and middle school (17.65%). There was equal likelihood that men would have children in elementary (26.47%), high school (26.47%), and college (26.47%) age ranges. At least 90% of female administrators did not have preschool-aged children (91.41%), nor did they have children in middle school (90.80%) or high school (90.18). Eight women (4.91%) have at least two children in elementary school, while 13 mothers have a single elementary-school-aged child.

Results of Analysis of Research Question Three

Research question three sought to determine the factors/forces which inhibit mobility into senior levels of student affairs. Using survey item 10, respondents addressed barriers for themselves and others. First, the difference in the number of barriers identified by men and women is reported in Table 9. The minimum number of barriers or inhibitors reported by men and women was zero. The maximum number of barriers reported by at least one man was 18 (out of a possible 18); similarly, the maximum number of barriers reported by at least one woman was 12 (see Table 19). The mean number of reported barriers/inhibitors for men was 5.88. On the average, women reported 6.68 constraints to their advancement in higher education administration. A series of two-way hypothesis tests (z-tests) for the difference between proportions was used to analyze the data generated. A

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics for the Number of Barriers Reported by Gender

	# of Observations	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Women	163	0	12.000	6.681	2.626
Men	204	0	18.000	5.882	2.873

Bonferonni procedure was done to control for the rate of Type I Error.

Results reported in Table 20 show a statistically significant difference between men's responses and those offered by women. These differences (see Table 20) were evidenced among gender-based responses as they related to

Table 20

Proportion of Men to Women Who Responded "Yes" to Barrier or Constraint

Barrier or Constraint	Men	Women	P-value
Sex Discrimination Barrier Personally	0.0833	0.2761	0.000
Sex Discrimination Barrier in General	0.4363	0.6749	0.000
Family Responsibilities Barrier in General	0.4461	0.6258	0.00048

Note. No other barriers were statistically significant.

(a) sex discrimination as it presented a barrier in general, (b) sex discrimination as it presented a barrier personally, and (c) family responsibilities as they presented a barrier in general. Both women (63.5%)

and men (43.6%) reported sex discrimination as a barrier to attaining senior administrative positions in general. Only 8.3% of all men surveyed saw sex discrimination as presenting a barrier for their personal careers; conversely, 27.6% of women surveyed perceived that sex discrimination inhibited their upward mobility. There was a significant difference in how men and women viewed responsibilities to and within the family as inhibitors to upward mobility in general. Women (62.5%) felt that family responsibilities presented a barrier to career advancement in general, while men (44.6%) agreed significantly less often.

Results of Analysis of Research Question Four

For purposes of this study, a student affairs administrator's career pattern is the product of the number of years since attaining one's highest degree to the start of current position, academic department from which the highest degree was obtained, faculty experience, and administrator gender. In order to analyze research question four, a loglinear analysis was done to determine career patterns which have proven successful for men and women in senior administrative positions in student affairs. Involved was an analysis of how men and women responded (question 19) regarding their previous faculty experience (question 4), highest degree attained (question 6), academic department from which highest degree was obtained (question 6) and the number of years since attaining one's highest degree to the start of current position. The reduced model without interactions is reflected in Table 21. A review of the table shows a significant difference exists (see Table 21) in the proportions of all responses as they relate to gender, highest degree attained, academic department from which degree was attained, and faculty position held.

Table 21

Career Patterns--Reduced Model

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Q19Gender (Q19)	1	3.79	0.0515
Q4Faculty (FAC)	1	37.50	0.0000
Q6Degree	3	51.02	0.0000
Q6Department (Dept)	6	69.34	0.0000
LIKELIHOOD RATIO	39	61.19	0.0131

The complete model is given in Table 22. The results of a likelihood ratio chi-square test proved statistically significant, implying that some structure remains unaccounted for in the table (see Table 22). However, because the unaccounted-for structure is not an interaction which involves gender, the present data analysis does not address it.

In a test for significance of interactions, a comparison was done of the likelihood ratio test statistic (32.81) from the model with interactions (see Table 23) and the likelihood ratio test statistic (61.19) from the model without interactions. The difference between the two test statistics is the test statistic for the significance of interactions. The critical chi-square value at 27 degrees of freedom and a .05 level of significance is 40.113. In this test for significance of interactions we fail to reject the null hypothesis. Therefore, on the basis of this test, it cannot be concluded that there exists evidence of a difference in career paths which men and women follow.

Table 22

Career Patterns--Full Model

Source	df	Chi Square	P-value
Q19Gender(Q19)	1	0.00	0.9888
Q4Faculty (FAC)	1	24.19	0.000
Q6Degree	3	31.39	0.000
Q6Department (Dept)	6	45.81	0.000
Q19*Q4FAC	1	0.10	0.7523
Q19*Q6Degree	2	0.13	0.9361
Q19*Q6Dept	6	2.69	0.8470
Q19*Q4FAC*Q6Degree	2	0.26	0.8786
Q19*Q4FAC*Q6Dept	5	3.31	0.6528
Q19*Q6Degree*Q6Dept	6	7.72	0.2594
Q19*Q4FAC*Q6Degree*Q6Dept	5	6.34	0.2742
LIKELIHOOD RATIO	12	32.81	0.0010

Table 23

Career Patterns--Significance of Interactions

df	Chi Square 27,.05	Conclusion
27	40.113	Fail to Reject

Quantitative data relating to career patterns were further analyzed using a t-test. The quantitative variable YRSTIL was established to represent

the number of years since attaining one's highest degree to the start of current position (see Table 24). The p-value is 0.6000. Because this value is not smaller than any reasonable alpha level, we fail to reject the null hypothesis, concluding that variances in gender response are equal. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that men and women experience a statistically significant difference between the number of years from obtaining their highest degree to the start of their current position.

Table 24

YRSTIL--T-test Procedure

Gender	N	Mean	SD	Std Error	Variance	T	df	prob> T
Women	159	9.364	8.502	0.674				
Men	202	9.450	8.177	0.575	Equal	-0.097	359	0.9227
For H_0 : Variances are equal, $F' = 1.08$					$df = (158, 201)$	$Prob>F' = 0.6000$		

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

This study was designed to examine specific factors/forces which affect the career paths of senior student affairs administrators. Student affairs administrators were comprised of men and women who were members of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators or the National Association for Women in Education and who worked at colleges and universities throughout the United States. Differences between administrative ranks held by men and women in the sample were analyzed, as well as differences in factors/forces which encouraged or inhibited their mobility into senior-level positions in student affairs. Both the empirical and qualitative outcomes presented in detail in the previous chapter pointed to several pertinent issues, implications, and recommendations that will be discussed in this chapter.

Senior student affairs administrators, as described in Chapter 1, are those who hold the position as associate dean, dean, assistant vice president/vice chancellor, associate vice president/vice chancellor, or vice president/vice chancellor. These positions encompass those commonly held by a university administrator of the office directly responsible for all nonacademic-related programs for students.

The challenge of an administrative role involves resolution of a variety of problems. In general, findings from empirical investigations of career paths of student affairs senior administrators lend unequivocal support

for the need of change in attitude toward women (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980; Scott & Spooner, 1989). The literature documented that academic processes inhibit movement of women into the administrative arena. Albeit, college recruitment, search procedures, and hiring activities demonstrated progress in women's mobility into senior positions; the rate of entry of this group remained underrated and minimal (Ost & Twale, 1989). The literature further indicated that differential reward systems, familial constraints, discrimination in pay or promotion, and lack of support for professional growth were among reported factors which impede progress (Fobbs, 1988). Recent literature affirmed that having traditional men as peers, women face subtle opposition, have to work harder to prove themselves, and are often called upon to perform multiple roles (McEwen, Williams, & Engstrom, 1991; Scott, 1992; Thorner, 1989). Literature reviewed (Bird, 1984) also documented that women earn less salary than their male colleagues. Socialization and attribution studies (Horner, 1968, 1987) showed that much of the blame for their slower mobility into administrative posts may be placed on women themselves. Several career inhibitors identified in the literature were attributed to such factors as women's propensity to limit themselves by the definition which they apply to the word success, beliefs about personal skills, abilities, perceptions about why they succeed or fail, and personal fear that social rejection and a loss of femininity accompany personal achievement and success (Block, 1973; Howard-Hamilton & Robinson, 1991; Frieze, Parsons, Johnson, Ruble, & Zellman, 1978). Notwithstanding, research knowledge suggests that negative attitudes toward women as administrators make it more difficult for them to assume administrative positions (Fesbach, 1974). Common obstacles and barriers for women have been reported in the

literature. In their investigation Washington and Harvey (1989) uncovered such inhibitors as job segregation, exclusion, salary inequity, lack of mentorship, and maintained that these factors affect the numbers of women who gain administrative and managerial positions.

Over the past three decades, continuing efforts have been made to describe ways in which women administrators, faculty, and graduate students in higher education are treated differently from men. As a result of progress in this regard, the literature reported several projects, strategies, legislation, and executive orders employed to create and adopt policies and programs to counteract imminent problems and to bring about change, collegiality, and equality.

The literature indicated that, historically, the number of men in student affairs administration has outnumbered women. However, the studies reviewed reported a steady increase in the number of women in senior-level student affairs administrative positions over the past 2 decades. During the same period, a large increase in the number of women in midlevel higher education administrative positions was evidenced (Bogenschutz & Sagaria, 1988). However, women were reported to remain underrepresented in positions as chief executives and deans (Kuyper, 1987). Empirical studies show that the CSAO position continues to be dominated by males (Haro, 1991; Paterson, 1987). Research (Alexander, 1988) contributed much of this to attributes, in general, which still presume that men exhibit superior competence in managerial roles.

Findings from investigations indicated the structure and nature of higher education organizations constrain traditional career advancement opportunities for women. Research attributed this, in part, to the existence of

few discernible career paths in the area. Unfortunately, because of limited research, investigators could not determine whether structural constraints of colleges adversely affect the level attained by administrators. Admittedly, the evaluation of factors that inhibit or encourage upward mobility in student affairs administration, as well as career paths, is difficult at best. And while no single factor/force, characteristic, or condition can purport to be conclusive in determining which administrator will ascend into senior levels, research has shown that some characteristics are indicators of administrator success, or the lack thereof.

The population of the study was described by demographic data delineated in Chapter 4. Most of the women in the sample were between 36 and 45 years of age; men were typically 46 to 55 years old. An overwhelming proportion of men and women sampled were white, not of Hispanic origin. On the average, women were married or had been married or partnered; most of the men surveyed were married. Typically, men and women in the sample administered student affairs programs at schools having predominantly female enrollments.

The methodological approach involved a survey of a total sample of 543 student affairs administrators who held position titles of associate dean or above. Administrators were identified from 1992 membership rosters of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators and the National Association for Women in Education. Three hundred male administrators who voluntarily responded to the survey, "Career Paths in Higher Education," were compared to 243 women in similar senior administrative positions. Data analysis procedures which varied according to the nature of the four research questions examined the differences in rank

between administrative positions, factors which inhibit and/or encourage upward mobility into senior administrative positions, and successful career patterns in student affairs.

Loglinear analysis, chi-square procedures, and two-way hypothesis test for differences between proportions were used to examine the research questions. Specifically, differences in administrative rank held by men and women were analyzed using a chi-square test for significance. In order to identify factors/forces which encourage upward mobility, a loglinear analysis was done to determine statistical significance between gender and responses to selected survey items. A two-way hypothesis test for differences between proportions was used to identify factors that inhibit upward mobility, as perceived by respondents to this survey. To identify career patterns experienced by senior administrators in student affairs, a loglinear analysis was done to test for interaction(s) between current position held, gender, department from which degree was obtained, and previous faculty experience, if any. Secondary analyses were conducted to determine the significance of the effect where an interaction was evidenced. Chi square and t-test were also used in analysis of data.

Conclusions

The present research sought to determine the difference in positions held by men and women in the sample, as well as specific factors that affect the career patterns of senior student affairs administrators. Selected research questions were examined in an effort to address career mobility and advancement to administrative positions for men and women.

The results of this study confirm and expand on existing research findings regarding the careers of senior student affairs administrators. The results indicated no statistically significant [$\chi^2 (4, N = 366) = 5.381, p < .05$] differences in the positions held by men and women in the sample. The data analysis offered no statistical evidence to indicate a differential level in the positions held by women and men. The largest proportion of male administrators in the sample was vice presidents; the largest proportion of women in the sample was deans of student affairs. However, unlike findings from previous research, results of the present study gave no evidence of a difference in senior positions held based on gender.

The present findings determined that administrators reported differences in several factors/forces which encouraged their mobility into upper levels of student affairs. A statistically significant difference was evidenced in expressed 5-year career goals and in the percentage of female enrollment at their institutions of employment. Most often men (53%) worked at institutions having largely female enrollments; similarly, 57% of the women surveyed also worked at institutions having largely female enrollments. Results of the data analysis also showed that differences existed in the age range of male and female administrators. Most women were between 36 and 45 years of age; most men were slightly older, between 46 and 55 years of age. There also was a difference between the year in which men and women attained their highest degree. Typically, men in the sample earned their highest degree earlier than women. Even though no statistical test for differences was conducted, observation of data showed that as their method of entry into higher education, women were recruited for their

position most often. Generally, men actively sought higher education as a career goal.

Findings reflected a contrast in the importance applied to factors at the beginning of the careers of men and women. A significant interaction between parenting and gender indicated that a difference existed in the reported importance ascribed to parenting at the beginning of the career of men and women. Over half of the women in the sample felt that parenting was not important at the beginning of their career. The same was true of a quarter of the men surveyed.

Other research findings indicated significant differences in factors/forces which encouraged upward mobility for male and female senior administrators in the sample. These included significant differences in the importance which male and female administrators currently ascribe to community/political involvement: Men attributed more importance to this involvement than women. Men and women also viewed the importance of leisure time differently, with women considering leisure time as important more often than their male counterparts. Significant differences were also evidenced in the type of institution which employ men and women. Most often women were administrators at institutions having enrollments of 2,500 or less and were less likely to be employed at schools having large enrollments (20,001 or more). Private institutions employed most women, while less than half worked at public colleges or universities. Typically, men administered student affairs programs at public institutions having between 2,501 and 10,000 enrolled students. There were differences reported in the number of men and women who administer student affairs programs at historically black/religiously affiliated institutions and in the number of men

and women who administer student affairs programs at selected minority, multiethnic, and predominantly white institutions. Men and women alike were administrators at schools which were not religiously affiliated, not historically black, nor those which were a combination of the two. However, slightly more than a fourth of the women surveyed worked at religious colleges or universities. Therefore, findings indicated that coupling the religious institution with the historically black label decreased the likelihood of women in senior administrative positions. Very few men and women worked at nonwhite or multiethnic colleges or universities. Differences were found in the ages of children of men and women administrators. Findings indicated that men in the sample had children who were 23 years of age or older most often. Mothers in the sample most frequently had children in the same age category. However, women were least likely to have children who were college age; men had preschool- and middle-school-aged children less often than women.

Research findings identified statistically significant differences in factors/forces which inhibit upward mobility as reported by men and women in the sample. Reported differences were noted in three significant areas: sex discrimination as a personal barrier, sex discrimination as a barrier to administrators in general, and family responsibilities as they presented a barrier for administrators in general. Generally, few men saw sex discrimination as presenting a barrier for their personal careers, while considerably more women perceived this factor as an inhibitor to their upward mobility. Women felt that their responsibility to family presented a barrier to career advancement, as men expressed similar feelings significantly less often.

Career patterns were defined as a function of the number of years since attaining one's highest degree to the start of current position, academic department from highest degree which was attained, faculty experience, and gender. In an effort to determine career patterns which have proven successful for men and women in senior student affairs administration, statistical data indicated no evidence that men and women followed different career paths.

Implications

Considering the data from this study, a number of implications are apparent. These implications apply to areas of student personnel administration theory, counseling, research, training, and practice.

The results of the present study do not support those found in much of the research literature (Andruskiw & Howes, 1980; Hoferek, 1986; Peterson, 1974; Sagaria, 1988; Tinsley, Secor, & Kaplan, 1984). Generally, the literature supports the notion that higher education administrators have awaited similar rate increases as evidenced in professional employment, employment trends, and hiring practices for women. Literature suggests that titles of higher rank and higher salary are conferred more frequently upon men than women (Clarke, 1988). The concept that the glass ceiling provides an invisible barrier to the advancement of women into senior-level positions has become a pervasive one. This catchy phrase is uttered among higher education administrators and those in student affairs, in particular. Unlike findings of recent studies done at Duke University and Oakland University, this research indicated that the level of positions held by men and women in the sample did not differ significantly. Similarly, no difference was found in administrative positions nor in the career paths which male and female

senior student affairs administrators follow. This suggests that student affairs practitioners must take special care not to generalize theories and concepts adapted from other occupational specialty markets in higher education.

Implied from the findings of this study is that women report no differential treatment in terms of promotion. That is, women were promoted and procured positions at a pace equal to their male counterparts. However, any assumption that women administrators are comfortable with their rate of hire, promotion, and overall treatment may be a misinterpretation. Presidents, other high level university administrators, and search committees must not be comfortable with selection and promotion procedures and current belief systems which inhibit upward mobility of women into senior administrative positions. There must be a realization of need to change such attitudes and behaviors toward women. Therefore, caution must be exercised in reporting the results of the present study.

The current research findings extend the body of knowledge as it pertains to career inhibitors and factors which encourage upward mobility of student affairs administrators. Although such factors have been addressed in previous higher education literature generally, this study enlarges upon factors as they apply specifically to student affairs contemporaries.

Several observations have major implications for student affairs administrators, universities, and their administrative affairs personnel as well. First, administrative officers of universities must use caution when applying the current findings to their own employment projections and search and screening committees. For example, although no statistical significance was found among senior student affairs administrators in the

level of position held, it was necessary to employ sampling procedures in order to ensure adequate representation of senior women administrators. The total number of women members of NAWA and NASPA who qualify as senior student affairs administrators, as defined by this study, is much smaller than that of their male colleagues. Subsequently, the reader should exercise caution in the generalization of results and with regard to this limitation.

Second, women and men perceived the issue of sex discrimination as a career inhibitor in a differential manner. This finding, coupled with their opposing perceptions of personal responsibilities to family, implies the need for more research, sharing, communication, and sensitivity on the part of men and women for the alignment of common goals. Accordingly, these findings can be used to stimulate dialogue and to facilitate mutual understanding.

Finally, it should be noted that the student affairs profession enjoys a greater representation of women professionals and administrators than those in academic affairs, administrative, or business services. However, student affairs is part of a different specialty market, having made more strides more rapidly as they relate to women in senior administrative positions. Therefore, caution should be used in generalizing the results of the present study to other aspects of the academy.

Recommendations

For those involved in the workings of higher education, and student affairs in particular, recognition of the needs of the practitioner (in this case, the administrator) is of fundamental importance. This recognition is prerequisite to planning in-service training programs, ascertaining goals, and capitalizing on the ways and means by which administrators can more

effectively serve students. With the increasing interests in improving the overall quality and effectiveness of university administration, it is important that administrators feel the support of a system which encourages personal development and mobility. This study was intended to examine specific factors that affect the career paths of men and women who hold senior administrative positions in student affairs. Information provided in this study as it relates to factors which encourage or inhibit mobility can prove useful in the provision of administrative services. A basic recommendation of the present researcher is a fundamental commitment toward this end.

Based on the results of this study, recommendations for further inquiry are warranted. The following research studies are suggested as they relate to career paths of student affairs administrators into senior-level positions.

1. Conduct a longitudinal study to determine career patterns that lead to senior administrative positions.

2. The present study should be replicated investigating factors which influence mobility of midlevel administrators into senior student affairs administrative positions.

3. Initiate a study to determine which career paths lead to specified levels of senior administrative positions in student affairs.

4. Complete a qualitative investigation of women who achieved senior administrative status and provide a comprehensive delineation of career inhibitors and motivators.

5. Empirically study the concept of career theory as it relates to the student affairs profession.

6. Study reasons for there being no differences in the numbers of men and women in senior student affairs positions, as opposed to the numbers of men and women in positions of higher education, in general.

Summary

Although student affairs professionals are free to participate in the administrative arena based upon indices of preparedness, qualifications, and merit, perceptions pervade the media, public attitude, and common thought that remain critical of the degree of egalitarian gender participation at selected administrative levels. Therefore, investigated in this study were gender differences in senior student affairs positions held, factors which encourage and/or inhibit upward mobility for administrators in those positions and differences in the career paths which senior administrators follow.

Indicated in the results of this study was that, despite their gender, administrators evidenced no difference in the level of positions which they held. Men and women showed no evidence of following different career patterns as they achieved their present status. However, administrators did report differences in those factors which encourage and inhibit their mobility into senior-level positions. A significant gender difference was evidenced in the age range of male and female senior administrators. Differences were also found in the expressed 5-year career goals of men and women administrators and the percentage of female enrollment at institutions of employment. There also was a difference between the year which men and women attained their highest degree, in the importance applied to parenting at the beginning of the career of men and women, in the importance which male and female administrators currently ascribe to community/political involvement, and the importance of leisure time. Significant differences were also evidenced in

the size and type of institution which employ men and women, in the number of men and women who administer student affairs programs at historically black/religiously affiliated institutions, and in the number of men and women who administer student affairs program at selected minority, multiethnic, and predominantly white institutions. Differences were also found in the ages of children of men and women administrators. Statistically significant differences were also found in factors which inhibited mobility into upper levels of student affairs administration. Men and women expressed a difference in experiences as they relate to sex discrimination and familial responsibilities.

Future research may replicate this study using a variation of the current sampling technique to ensure greater representation of the student affairs profession, generally. A qualitative study to complement these findings may be considered. In any case, continued research and implementation of strategies are crucial for greater realization of equality and goodwill.

APPENDIX A
CAREER PATHS IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION
(Warner, Brazzell, Allen, Bostick, & Marin, 1988)

Directions: In an effort to identify and promote the advancement of leaders to administrative positions in student personnel in higher education, this doctoral candidate is conducting a survey of senior student affairs administrators in institutions of higher education. The purpose of this survey is to determine what and how strategies promote advancement to senior administrative positions.

Your participation in this survey is completely VOLUNTARY. However, in order to gather a fair impression of the strategies employed, it is important that as many senior student affairs administrators as possible respond to the survey. Please respond in a manner that best represents your experiences.

Section 1

The first section of this survey is concerned with your career development.

Q-1. Which of the following best describes your method of entry into higher education administration? (Circle the number associated with your response)

- 1 Actively sought it as a career goal
- 2 Applied for position
- 3 Was recruited for position
- 4 Directed or inspired by a woman
- 5 Directed or inspired by a man
- 6 Other (please specify) _____

Q-2. Which of the following best describes your career goals for the next five years? (Please circle the number for only one response)

- 1 To be promoted to another position in higher education with more responsibility and/or power
- 2 To remain in this present position in higher education
- 3 To leave the field of higher education for other employment
- 4 Retirement
- 5 Other (please specify) _____

- Q-3. Rank the following factors in terms of their relative influence on your administrative career pattern. Rank the most important influence 1, the next most influential 2, etc.

☐ Professional work experience background
☐ Biographical background
☐ Educational background
☐ Other (please specify) _____

- Q-4. Please list the positions which you have held since graduation from college, including both academic and administrative work. Begin with your present position and work backwards to include your first position.

Position Held	Place of Employment (school or agency)	Year Began	Year Left
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

Section 2

The second section of this questionnaire is concerned with your educational and professional experiences.

- Q-5. Which of the following educational or training experiences do you believe provided the most help for preparation for administrative duties? Please rank these in order of perceived significance, with the most helpful experiences ranked 1, the second most helpful ranked 2, etc.

☐ Management courses/workshops
☐ Personnel management
☐ Leadership seminars
☐ On-the-job training
☐ Community volunteer
☐ Other (please specify) _____

- Q-6. Next, we would like to obtain some information about your educational background. In the space provided below, please list the degrees you have earned, the college, and department which granted the degree, and when the degree was obtained.

Degree	College or University	Department	Year Granted
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

- Q-7. Please rank the following factors in terms of their relative importance to you at THE BEGINNING OF YOUR CAREER, and their relative importance to you CURRENTLY. Place a 1 in the space of the most important role, a 2 for the second most important role, etc.

<u>Beginning of career</u>	<u>Factor</u>	<u>Current ranking</u>
_____	Career	_____
_____	Parenting	_____
_____	Relationship with spouse	_____
_____	Community/political involvement	_____
_____	Leisure	_____
_____	Other (please specify)	_____

- Q-8. Please list any memberships you have held in professional organizations, and indicate any leadership positions held.

<u>Name of professional organization</u>	<u>Leadership position held</u>
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

- Q-9. How important do you feel your involvement in professional organizations has been in your career development? (Circle the number for your response)

- 1 Very important
- 2 Somewhat important
- 3 Not at all important

- Q-10. Below is a list of factors which may be perceived as constraints or barriers to advancement in higher education administration. Which of these do you believe represent real barriers to advancement in general, and which do you believe has been a barrier in your own career advancement? (Check all that apply)

Barrier or constraint	Presents a barrier in general	Presents a real barrier for me personally
-----------------------	-------------------------------	---

Lack of professional involvement	_____	_____
Lack of a strong sponsor or mentor	_____	_____
Lack of an advanced degree	_____	_____
Sex discrimination	_____	_____
Racial discrimination	_____	_____
Family responsibilities	_____	_____
Desire to remain in present geographical location	_____	_____
Lack of diversity in administrative experience	_____	_____
Other (please specify)	_____	_____

Section 3

The final section of the questionnaire asks a series of demographic questions. Your answers will be confidential. Please fill in the blank or circle the number which corresponds to your response.

Q-11. Your institution is ____private or ____public with an enrollment of?

- 1 ____ 2,500 or less
- 2 ____ 2,501 - 10,000
- 3 ____ 10,001 - 20,000
- 4 ____ 20,001 or more

Q-12. What is the male ____ to female ____ student ratio at your institution?

Q-13. Your institution is best described as (indicate each that applies)

- 1 ____ Predominantly white
- 2 ____ Historically black
- 3 ____ Religiously affiliated
- 4 ____ Other (please specify) _____

Q-14. What is your current marital status?

- 1 Married (first marriage)
- 2 Remarried
- 3 Divorced/Separated
- 4 Widowed
- 5 Never married
- 6 Other (please specify) _____

Q-15. What is the occupation of your partner/spouse (if married)? _____

Q-16. Do you have any children?

- 1 No
- 2 Yes

If yes, what are their ages?

Q-17. Please indicate your age range.

- ____ Under 25
____ 26-35
____ 36-45
____ 46-55
____ 56 or over

Q-18. Which of the following best describes your racial/ethnic identification?

- 1 Asian or Pacific Islander
- 2 Black, not of Hispanic origin
- 3 Hispanic
- 4 Native American
- 5 White, not of Hispanic origin

Q-19. Are you: ____female ____male ?

Is there anything else you would like to tell us about your career development and/or career goals? Please use this space for that purpose.

APPENDIX B
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE

June 16, 1992

Dear Administrator:

My name is Valda L. Slack. I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Florida in the Department of Counselor Education. I am currently conducting research which is an examination of career paths of senior student affairs administrators. My particular focus is on women in administration. Yet, included in this study are all student personnel administrators who comprise the categories designated as senior level.

My research project is not an experiment where conditions are manipulated or different treatments are attempted. Participants will simply be asked to complete a questionnaire in the privacy of their home or office. Upon completing the forms, I am asking that you return same in the self-addressed, stamped envelope provided. The results of this survey will only be used for academic purposes and your answers will be kept completely confidential. The entire process should take no more than 15 minutes.

I know that you may frequently become inundated with paperwork and serious demands upon your time. However, I appreciate your taking time to read this letter and for your completion of this questionnaire in a timely manner.

Respectfully,

Valda L. Slack
Doctoral Candidate

(Sent to Identified Senior Student Affairs Administrators)

APPENDIX C
LETTER IN SUPPORT OF RESEARCH TRANSMITTED COOPERATIVELY
BY THE VICE PRESIDENT FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS AND
ASSOCIATE VICE PRESIDENT FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA
Office of the Vice President
for Student Affairs

129 Tigert Hall
Gainesville, FL. 32611-2073
(904) 392-1265

June 16, 1992

Dear Colleagues:

We are writing this letter in support of Ms. Valda Slack's study of Career Paths of Senior Student Affairs staff. We have known Valda for several years, as she is a doctoral student at the University of Florida, and served as an Associate Dean of Students at Dillard University.

We believe this study can contribute to a better understanding of the various paths men and women follow in our field to obtain senior leadership positions. We urge your participation in the study.

Thank you for your support and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Helen Mamarchev
Associate Vice President

Arthur Sandeen
Vice President

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Valda L. Slack was born in Toledo, Ohio, to Mr. and Mrs. David L. Slack, Sr. She was educated in the public schools of New Orleans, Louisiana, and graduated from Mc Donogh Number 35 High School. She attended Dillard University, New Orleans, for her undergraduate education and received the Bachelor of Arts degree in psychology.

Upon receipt of the Master of Arts degree in counseling and guidance from California State University at Fresno, Valda became an evaluator/counselor for the West Fresno School District. While residing in Fresno, California, she served as project coordinator for the Economic Opportunity Commission, as well as a therapist and special program consultant at Westview Hospital.

A significant career move was later effected as Valda returned to New Orleans to serve her alma mater. Valda became the youngest dean in the history of the student affairs department at Dillard University. During her tenure as student affairs administrator, Valda was invited to enroll in the doctoral program at the University of Florida as a Graduate Minority Fellow. Subsequently, she was accepted into the Department of Counselor Education, with an emphasis on student personnel in higher education and having a subspecialization in university leadership.

While matriculating at the University of Florida, Valda was employed at the university in such capacities as directors and coordinators for

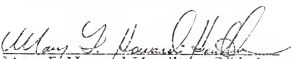
counseling, tutoring, advisement, training, and development. She has acted as Director of the Institute of Black Culture at the University of Florida. Valda has co-authored EMOTIONALITY, a substance abuse therapeutic technique, for which a copyright was recently obtained.

Valda possesses an intrinsic desire to mold and shape the minds of today's youth. She has the marked ability and enjoys training supervisors and managers for organizational development and intervention. As she realizes this challenge to influence behavior and attitude change in students, faculty, and administrators, she holds dear a personal aspiration to become a university president.


I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Gerardo M. Gonzalez, Chair
Professor of Counselor Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


Mary F. Howard-Hamilton, Cochair
Assistant Professor of Counselor
Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

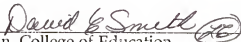

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I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.


C. Arthur Sandeen
Professor of Educational Leadership

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

May, 1993



Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School